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Continuing The Historical Outlook

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXIX, NUMBER 4

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The Changing View of the Function of History¹

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Every earnest history teacher faces now and then the depressing question of his reason for existence. Why does he teach history? What are the objectives of history teaching, and in what measure does he attain them? The question is depressing mainly for two reasons. In the first place, there has been, and is, much vagueness about the purpose of history teaching. In the second place, the choicest fruits of history teaching ripen slowly, if at all, and are hard to distinguish in the mind of a candid inquirer from those produced by other seedlings which wise men plant in the curriculum to develop a liberal education. As if uncertainty of aim and inability to segregate the results of his labor were not enough cause for despondency, the soul of the introspective history teacher is further troubled by the query: What is history? For able historians have not always given the same answer to that question—though the conflict here, I suspect, lies more in words than in substance.

I cannot answer these questions satisfactorily even to myself. Perhaps it is not desirable that they should be answered. Recurrent doubts are a wholesome antidote to complacency. In spite of my inability to answer them, however, it is around them that I have grouped the reflections and observations that follow.

First then, in reverse order, What is history? The definition of a ninth grade textbook that I read the other day says: "History is a record of what civilized men have thought or said or done in past times." I

once wrote in a seventh grade book: "History is the story of what men and women have thought and done in the past. It tells how they have lived and struggled and worked. It tells how they have suffered from errors, false ideas, and misfortunes. But it tells also how they have continued for many thousands of years to make the world always a happier and more comfortable place in which to live." James Harvey Robinson, in 1911, wrote: "In its amplest meaning history includes every trace and vestige of everything that man has done or thought since first he appeared on the earth."

As ideal definitions of the legitimate content of history these spacious phrases leave, literally, nothing to add. But they do not get us very far; for the most industrious and ambitious historian knows that the diverse threads of all human activity cannot be collected in one mind or woven into a single fabric. No canvas is large enough for the complete picture. So we have histories of the world, of nations, states, counties, cities, and communities; histories of movements; histories of manifold industries and institutions; and histories of arbitrary chronological periods; not to mention histories of literature, science, and art, or the productions in the allied fields of government, economics, anthropology, and sociology.

The problem of subdivision is primarily one for the writer rather than for the teacher, though the teacher has a keen interest in the way it is handled. The task of the writer is to learn the truth as nearly

as it can be ascertained, to relate his little segment of truth to the general fabric of history, and to present it to the reader as a unit, large or small, of the whole. But how does one learn the truth, or all of the truth, about anything? The blunt and candid answer is that one doesn't. This is not a new discovery. Only in rare moments of poetical exaltation has the historian succumbed to the seductive dream that he might see truth face to face. His humble ambition is to approach truth as nearly as possible, remembering always the deceptive nature of evidence and his own human frailty in weighing it.

Training for his task forty years ago, thirty years ago, or twenty years ago, the historian subjected himself to a severe discipline. He approached his investigation without preconceived opinions, or tried to. He collected all the evidence available and formed his deductions and conclusions with a critical mind. He sought to transform himself into an impersonal intellectual machine free from national, sectional, political, religious, racial, or class bias. He tried to present to the reader a picture of conditions and events as they actually were, with their causes and consequences. If he allowed himself the luxury of a judgment or conclusion, he labeled it plainly personal opinion and gave the argument against it as well as for it. If he passed judgment on motives or morals, he applied to them the standards prevailing in the period of which he wrote. In other words, he had no axe to grind and studiously refrained from turning the grindstone for others—or at least that was his aim.

But let me be emphatic about this: *No honest historian ever believes himself wholly unbiased, impartial, and objective.* He merely tries to be. No doubt practical people who expect a utilitarian *quid pro quo* for expenditure of money, effort, and time have always thought the historian's quest for unattainable truth an arid adventure. They demand results measurable on score cards, and I fear that they are about to get them, for there is abundant evidence that the historian's conception of his function is changing.

This change of purpose in the mind of the history writer is part of the process that I have been trying, in this long introduction, to arrive at and describe. Some twenty-five years ago Professor Robinson published his conviction that the uses of sealing wax and cabbages are history as well as the doings of kings, and he seemed to imply that perhaps they might be more important. The contemporary historian did not quarrel with his thesis, but was inclined to balk at his emphasis. About the same time professional educationists were amusing themselves by assaulting common sense with the doctrine that equal effort produced equal value in education regardless of the

nature of the subject upon which the effort was expended. Of course, neither Professor Robinson nor the equalitarian educationists stated the matter quite so baldly, but this was the gist of the message that their puzzled readers received.

The point is that Robinson turned attention to a multitude of homely topics which historians commonly undervalued as much as he overvalued them, and the emphasis of the pedagogists upon the equal value of all knowledge, if acquired with equal pain, strengthened his crusade for reform of the written content of history. In numerous articles, books, and speeches he elaborated and expanded his theme and arrived finally at the conviction—or stated it—that the historian had been working futilely at a futile task. Man could never know the whole truth, could never be wholly impartial, impersonal, and objective. Therefore what the historical profession needed in order to become more effective members of society was less talk of objectivity and more vigorous prosecution of an object. But what object and whose?

So far as I am aware, Professor Robinson's theory did not affect the soundness of his practice. He culminated some of his textbooks, it is true, with descriptions of mechanical inventions as tedious and quite as useless as the names of kings and dynasties that he ridiculed in older books; but I think he followed to the end the principles of thoroughness, impartiality, and impersonality that he imbibed in the old fashioned seminars that he attended in his youth. The same cannot be said, however, of some of his disciples and of others who practiced what he preached. The New History which he proclaimed stimulated the production of books chiefly in the fields of economic and social history. Neither field was new in historical ideology nor wholly new in historiography, for there were already some impressive examples of the writing of both social and economic history. It would be inaccurate, therefore, to ascribe to Robinson the discovery of New History. No doubt it was destined to emerge with or without a sponsor. What he did was to name it and become its most respected and influential advocate. He made it a gauge of sophistication by which self-assured young writers could measure their emancipation from the outmoded inhibitions that controlled their elders.

One sees the influence of the new technique in many directions, most palpably in the smart biographies that burst like a rash from publishing houses a few years ago; in the study of various phases of economic history; and in the piling of insignificant detail upon detail in some of the so-called social histories. In spite of my unsympathetic tone, I hope that I am not understood to say that the "debunking" biographers, the "hardboiled" students of economic motives, and the omniverous social historians have

added nothing to our knowledge of facts. I do believe, however, that they not infrequently subtract more from our knowledge of the truth, by voluntary or involuntary distortion, than they add to it.

One shrinks from concrete illustrations because they appear personal and are easily misconstrued; yet without them discussion is vague. In 1913, Dr. Charles A. Beard published his *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States*. The factual contribution that the book makes to our knowledge of the formation of the Constitution can be stated in a few words. It catalogues more or less completely the amounts and kinds of property owned by the men who wrote the Constitution. That they owned property was not a novel discovery. Historians had known it for a hundred and twenty years and had naïvely congratulated the nation that it was true. Beard's classification of their holdings and the amount of them was new. Some owned state and continental obligations which they could not collect. Some owned notes and mortgages which distressed debtors were trying to compel state legislatures and state courts to invalidate. Some had money invested in ships, and the weakness of Congress under the Articles of Confederation enabled foreign governments, without fear of reprisal, to shut them out of their ports and prevent them from getting cargoes. Some owned western lands which the government could neither open up nor protect. Still others had money in hand which they wished to invest safely and profitably. A strong government could obtain revenue and pay the debts, enforce contracts, exact reciprocal commercial privileges from foreign nations, and create conditions favorable to western landowners and to the investment of capital. Not a single member of the Convention, says Beard, represented the economic interests of the small farming or mechanic classes; while "at least five-sixths were immediately, directly, and personally interested in the outcome of their labors, . . . and were to a greater or lesser extent economic beneficiaries from the adoption of the Constitution."

Beard did not say that the Constitution created a government injurious to the interests of farmers and artisans. In two parenthetical asides he says quite the reverse: "Of course," he says, "it may be shown (and perhaps can be shown) that the farmers and debtors who opposed the Constitution were, in fact, benefited by the general improvement which resulted from its adoption." And again: "As practical men, they were able to build the new government upon the only foundations which could be stable: fundamental economic interests." And what profit is there in unstable government?

By this philosophy of selfish economic interests, the Constitution becomes in our time an instrument

shaped by certain rich men to protect their own economic privileges and used by others to grind the faces of the poor. The extreme to which this interpretation may be pushed is illustrated by a college textbook on the economic history of the United States published in 1934. Beard was under no obligation to tell the dark story of the chaotic conditions resulting from the deficiencies of the Articles of Confederation, but the writer of the textbook was, if he introduced the subject at all, and this is the way he does it: "No profit is to be obtained," he says, "from harping upon the weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation." All its deficiencies might have been cured by time—"a decade or two," he suggests. Moreover, he asks, is it not possible "that the Articles of Confederation, like the villain in the old-time melodrama, have been painted too black in order to make appear more lily-white the purity of the hero—the Constitution of the United States." He implies, in other words, that Federalist historians have been engaged for a hundred and fifty years in a conspiracy to exalt the virtues of the Constitution by ignoring what he considers its anti-social origin. This seems to be a thorough-going application of the doctrine that the ideal of impartiality is impossible and that history written under the hallucination of that ideal "has been discarded and laid away in the museum of antiquities."

I once had a bit of correspondence with a New Historian about this matter. I said: "What the New Historian often aims at, it seems to me, is not truth for its own sake, or perhaps not the whole truth as nearly as he can discover it for any purpose at all, but half truth and clever suppression to support a brief for a preconceived social end. He has become an advocate and a propagandist. Isn't the New Historian using the garb and prestige of the Old Historian's craft to advance a social revolution? His prophetic soul tells him that the world will be bettered by the realization of his prophecy. But after all, why trust his own infallibility? And, in doing so, does he remain a historian or become a prophet?" His reply was that, "From the purely scientific, or neutral, point of view, there seems to be no difference between a revolutionist engaged in exploiting history and the conservative who . . . consciously or unconsciously writes the kind of history that supports the *status quo*." His argument, though I don't believe he meant it that way, seems to reduce itself to this: that a man who tells the truth to the best of his ability is no better than one who deliberately tries to deceive.

It happens that in 1912, the year before the appearance of his *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution*, Beard published another book entitled, *The Supreme Court and the Constitution*. Unfortunately

that book, which seems to me far more authoritative than his *Economic Interpretation* and is equally applicable to current issues, has been ignored by Supreme Court reformers, and is almost unknown even to well informed students of public affairs. Beard, strangely enough, has never listed it among his publications in *Who's Who*. In it he discusses the question of whether or not the framers of the Constitution intended to give the Supreme Court the right of judicial review and the duty to declare void acts of Congress which it considers unconstitutional. He answers definitely that substantially all of the influential members of the Convention did so intend, and supports his findings with convincing evidence. He disproves categorically the common statement that the Convention rejected a proposal to give Supreme Court justices the power of judicial review. Yet we still hear from many in high authority including a distinguished historian-ambassador, United States senators, and some university professors the confident proclamation that there is not only no evidence that the Convention intended the Court to declare acts of Congress unconstitutional, but that it voted down the proposal to give it such power. I am not implying, of course, that the practice of quoting scripture for a purpose was invented by the New Historian, but it is certain that his influence will not tend to discourage it.

Fortunately, it seems to me, though many will not agree, restrictions of good taste and other considerations work against sudden and violent changes in the tone and methods of history teaching. Writers of textbooks for schools, regardless of their personal convictions and desires, try to navigate their barks on well charted seas. They strive for impartiality, impersonality, and scrupulous factual accuracy. On the whole, they achieve the first two qualities—impartiality and impersonality—in high degree and safeguard themselves on the third (accuracy) by repeating the authorized version of history with the minimum of necessary variations.

In response to long sustained, and in some respects intelligent, demand, they have shifted emphasis from politics and wars to topics in social and economic history. Having never discovered the slightest significance in the details of battles and campaigns, I welcome the opportunity to omit them. But the demand for greater emphasis upon social and economic history hand in hand with insistence upon elimination of political history seems to me a contradiction in terms. What aspect of our national history today is more vital than the doings of government and the rivalry of parties?

In response again to the demands of educational theorists, most of whom neither write nor teach history—even if they know it—textbook writers have

tried to substitute the delightful pastime of doing "activities" for the painful drudgery of learning facts. Fortunately most writers compromise by including both "facts" and "activities." Personally, I favor making all learning, and particularly the learning of history, as painless as possible, but human beings—who make history—live in time and space, and a few dates and place names are indispensable.

One reason for the sobriety of school textbooks, as I have indicated, is the restraint imposed by good taste and the desire to make books widely acceptable. Even more potent, I think, is the influence of the report on *The Study of History in Schools* by a committee of the American Historical Association, first published in 1899. The committee laid down a four-year curriculum for high schools consisting of ancient, medieval and modern, English, and American history with civics. This course has been followed by schools with local adaptations for nearly forty years. At the same time the committee set forth its conception of the objective of historical study and of its value in the process of education.

"Secondary education," said the committee, "ought to fit boys and girls to become, not scholastics, but men and women who know their surroundings and have come to a sympathetic knowledge of their environment; and it does not seem necessary now to argue that the most essential result of secondary education is: [1] acquaintance with political and social environment, [2] some appreciation of the nature of the State and Society, [3] some sense of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, [4] some capacity in dealing with political and governmental questions, [5] something of the broad and tolerant spirit which is bred by the study of past times and conditions." The committee thought the teaching of history not the only means, but the best and most direct means of equipping pupils for the duties of citizenship.

"History," stated the committee: 1. "Cultivates the judgment by leading the pupil to see the relation between cause and effect as cause and effect appear in human affairs." 2. "The study of history gives training not only in acquiring facts, but in arranging and systematizing them and in putting forth individual product." 3. "History is . . . helpful in developing . . . the scientific habit of mind and thought; . . . that every question should be approached without prejudice; that open-mindedness, candor, honesty are requisites for the attainment of scientific knowledge." To these prime contributions of historical study to education for citizenship the committee added: pleasure derived from knowledge of the past, practice in the use of books, stimulation of the imagination, and training in precision of thought and expression.

Repeating in our own words the committee's conception of the contribution of history to education and to the development of citizenship: It equips pupils with some knowledge of the past and the relation of the present to the past; it teaches orderly thinking in the analysis, coordination, and arrangement of facts; and it develops the scientific, or historical, habit of mind. This quality is defined as the habit of approaching every question without prejudice and of examining it with candor and honesty. There is no assumption that a given state of society or a given tendency is good or bad, or that a citizen should be taught in school to promote a particular aim or movement. On the contrary he should be taught to inform himself, to judge candidly and honestly, and to act according to his conclusions.

In 1934 another report was published, this time by a committee of the American Historical Association and allied social sciences. It is entitled *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission on the Social Studies*. It, too, like the report of 1899, declares that the purpose of education and of history and the other social sciences is to fit boys and girls for the duties, responsibilities, and privileges of citizenship, but there the similarity between the two reports ends. In confusing language and with many apparent contradictions, the committee seems to say that the objective of society is a collectivist democracy—whatever that may be—and that it is the proper aim of historical study and the duty of the schools to prepare citizens who will work harmoniously and unselfishly for the attainment of that happy end as speedily as possible.

The assumption is that we are headed for a universally recognized destination, that it is the ideal goal of society, and that it is the duty of good citizens, in order to lessen friction, to join the parade and push. Social science instruction, the committee thinks, must be "something more than abstract"; it must be "concrete, realistic, and serviceable," that is, conducive to the realization of the committee's preconceived end.

In the Utopia of its dreams, the committee sees "a society in which no man, woman, or child can be exploited by another"; where "acquisitive individualism with all its cruder manifestations in gambling, speculation, exploitation, and racketeering, is subdued to the requirements and potentialities of the emerging society"; where "the establishment of a higher and finer standard of living may be expected to free people from absorption in material things and enable them to devote greater attention to ideals of spiritual, scientific, and cultural development"; where "individualism in economy" will be curbed on the one hand and on the other there will be a "reservation to the individual of the largest possible measure of

freedom in realms of personal and cultural growth, and the preservation and development of individuality in its non-acquisitive expressions as the finest flower of civilized society"; where "the right of the individual is safeguarded to be free from excessive social pressures on his personal behavior, mode of living, cultural satisfactions and avocations, and religious, economic, and political beliefs"; where there shall be "possible the most complete realization, under changed conditions of life, of the ideals of American democracy and cultural liberty: the recognition of the moral equality and dignity of all men; the abolition of class distinctions and special privileges; the extension to every individual, regardless of birth, class, race, religion, or economic status, of the opportunity for the fullest development of his creative capacities, his spiritual qualities, his individuality; the encouragement of social inquiry, inventiveness, and tolerance; the protection of all liberties essential to defense against the exercise of brute power, the resistance to appeals to racial and religious passion and prejudice"; where "the emerging economy, by the reduction of hours of labor and other measures, promises to free the ordinary individual from the long working day, exhausting labor and economic insecurity, thus providing him with opportunities for personal development far greater and richer than those enjoyed under the individualistic economy of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries"; and where, "in the integrated society now emerging, the ideal of individual, institutional, and local advancement will of necessity give way increasingly to considerations of general, national, and world welfare." Would it be impolite to ask in what rôle the members of the committee cast themselves in the "emerging society of non-acquisitive economic individualism?" I should dearly like to see one honestly face that question, for so far as my acquaintance with scholars goes they are about as keenly interested in their own economic acquisitions as any predatory economic royalist may be.

The committee recognizes casually the danger of shipwreck on this glorious voyage to the millennium, but dismisses it with a gesture: the right sort of education—its own sort—will remove the danger. "Educators stand today," the committee says, "between two great philosophies of social economy: the one representing the immediate past and fading out in actuality, an individualism in economic theory which has become hostile in practice to the development of individuality for great masses of the people and threatens the survival of American society; the other representing and anticipating the future on the basis of actual trends—the future already coming into reality, a collectivism which may permit the widest development of personality or lead to a bureaucratic tyranny

destructive of ideals of popular democracy and cultural freedom." But how to avoid the horrors of "bureaucratic tyranny" the committee does not say.

However, it indulges in a pious hope. It says: "While stressing the desirability of curbing individualism in economy, the commission deems highly desirable the conscious and purposeful employment of every practicable means to ward off the dangers of goose-step regimentation in ideas, culture, and invention; of sacrificing individuality; of neglecting precious elements in the traditional heritage of America and the world; and of fostering a narrow intolerant nationalism or an aggressive predatory imperialism." Again, one asks, how?

Whether or not one believes that the antitheses in this orgy of language can be reconciled; whether one believes that rigid regimentation of economic life and the complete suppression of acquisitive economic individualism is compatible with supreme individualism in intellectual and cultural activity—and it certainly has not proved so in three conspicuous national experiments now in progress; the significant thing is that the committee advocates, in effect, a dynamic program of propaganda. History teachers are urged to abandon the outworn shibboleth of judicial detachment and blow the horn and beat the drum for the advancement of the committee's prophetic vision. Though the committee "deems peculiarly desirable the preservation and more complete realization, within the field of the social sciences, of the ideal of freedom, of research, publication, teaching, and scholarship," and though it thinks it "highly important and necessary that the social sciences should seek to study man and society objectively, it perceives that objective study of itself does not and cannot provide society or the individuals composing it with will, force, or purpose." In short, though the committee does not say it this way, one should amuse himself as much as he likes with such sterile pastimes as research, publication, and scholarship, but when he is tired of emulating the freedom of the "Wild Jackasses of the Wilderness" he will return to the party fold, accept the platform, and lead the nation to

ever grander and more glorious freedom.

A friend of mine tells a story which bears some analogy to the report of the committee, as it impresses me. A colored man was trying to explain to his employer the process by which the congregation of the "Church of the Unknown Tongues" worshipped in unknown tongues. He said: "Boss, they jes' seems to put their minds in neutral and talk."

I have not sought in this discussion to range the abstruse literature of the philosophy of history in five languages. Too often its chief service seems to be to obscure the obscurities of those who quote it. On the contrary, I have tried to describe here the tendency that I observe in the study and writing of history by professional historians. It is not a uniform tendency. Most "Old" historians and not a few "New" ones still concern themselves primarily with the search for objective truth, that is, they strive to reach the neighborhood of truth, without regard to its utilitarian application. Even the apostles of history for propaganda do not whole-heartedly exemplify the new gospel in their writings. The disparity between doctrine and performance is so great, in fact, that one sometimes questions their sincerity.

Returning to the question with which this paper began, again I confess my inability to define the objectives of history teaching. Perhaps one teaches as an act of faith, hoping to contribute to the building of habits of straight thinking, intellectual honesty, good judgment, tolerance, and independence, while imparting some knowledge of the culture and experience of the past which has helped to make the present and which in some form will undoubtedly help to shape the future. This is a modest aspiration, but its potentialities for developing good citizens and good democrats are far greater, it seems to me, than are those of the militant program evolved by the Commission on the Social Sciences. Let us not lend ourselves and our subject to a campaign of propaganda either for maintenance of a *status quo* or for the establishment of Utopia!

¹ Read before The History Section of the Texas State Teachers' Association, at Houston, Texas, in November, 1937.

Working for a Better Social Order

Fantasy, Reality and Response

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FANTASY

A fresh review of current affairs often brings new hopes and anticipations. This is in itself reassuring in so far as it represents a determination to profit individually and collectively by the mistakes of the immediate past. But such hoping and striving is but one expression of man's attempt to achieve a true civilization, a new and better social order. Americans have usually exhibited this quality of hopefulness. Aldous Huxley, who recently completed a second tour of the United States, said that, "In spite of the depression I found an extraordinary hopefulness running through people. It is hopefulness that distinguishes your continent from Europe where there is hopeless depression and fear." Moreover, he added, "This hopefulness makes a comforting atmosphere. And from the practical point of view it is sound. If you are hopeful, you finally end by creating the things you hope for." The literal accuracy of this observation may be questioned, but it does point to a broader fact, namely, that man is a culture builder and a social architect. "Cultures are the creation of living men and women, acting and reacting on their outer environment, acting and reacting on an inner environment that becomes ever more open to collective experience and collective verification."

Yet, despite this growth of knowledge and prevision, the gap between hopes and realities never seemed wider than at present. With a profound sense of gratitude for past blessings it is nevertheless accurate to say that humanity has fallen short. Humanity is on the spot. Due to the radio, the movie, the newspaper, and other agencies of mass stimulation, the noble and the ignoble in human activities is better known. Many are fed upon a daily diet of crisis, crime, war, and propaganda. Yet hoping, achieving and aspiring also play a part. Hopes have been generous, even extravagant. Doubtless too much has been expected and short cuts have been sought. At any rate, the record of unachieved goals is impressively large. And in such a reflection it is apparently easier to develop a sense of inferiority than of mastery. Subconsciously it may be admitted that those Viennese psychologists, Freud, Adler and Jung, with their

emphasis on inferiority and dominance, seem to more nearly explain our discontents than those famous American writers, James, Thorndike, and Watson. For according to the Viennese school domination is but the obverse side of inferiority. But extravagant ambitions may lead to disaster, to a kind of super-egoism which cannot find satisfaction in the normal experience of everyday living. Current explanations of world belligerency include this view. The press and the public have made a distinction between the Japanese people and their military government. And in order that the Japanese military maintain its power it must seek ever fresh conquests. Utterly opposed to this, Christianity taught that the fundamentally sane and sound psychology was that he who would exalt himself must be abased and he that would be greatest must be the servant of all.

One of the post-war hopes was that centered in the League of Nations. It contained the hope of mutual disarmament, of territorial integrity and of a peaceful settlement of disputes. But Germany, Italy and Japan have withdrawn, or have given notice of withdrawal. The United States never entered. And instead of disarmament the total world expense for national defense has reached a staggering total. Nations are building bigger navies and creating larger armies in order that they may not have a war! It does sound a little strange. Yet enshrined in the League hope was the conviction that it accorded with the trend of political evolution. That world statesman, Jan Smuts, coined the much quoted phrase, "Humanity has struck its tents and is on the march, whither?" And he was ready with an answer. It was to march toward international coöperation. For, as late as 1929, he said that humanity had crossed the great divide, the greatest dividing line in history, that which parted national self-sufficiency and international order and coöperation.

The abolition of poverty also lured people and statesmen. Living standards have advanced. President Harding in proclaiming a return to normalcy said that as man in his struggle upward had abolished slavery, witchcraft and infanticide, and that he was about to abolish poverty. Mr. Hoover in 1928 was of the same opinion as to the imminence of poverty re-

moval, and in 1937, Professor James Ford, after years of teaching and research, writes a bold book entitled, *The Abolition of Poverty*, in which a concrete engaging of social energies is outlined. "Poverty," he says, "can be abolished and by measures that are legal, businesslike and consonant with the methods and traditions of our pioneering democracy." Resources are adequate, but plans and purposes are not yet clearly perceived. The Social Security Act, however—one of the most colossal undertakings of the post-depression era—which he approves, was enacted in the belief that poverty is curable.

Associated with this hope was that of control over the business cycle. The notion that an unheralded business depression would descend upon any community of honest traders was dispelled in part by a wide literature upon the subject. It was believed that knowledge of causes would diminish the severity of business recessions and the attendant evils of unemployment. In 1927, R. G. Tugwell in summarizing this knowledge in his volume, *Industry Comes of Age*, cited as one evidence of maturity the growing literature on cycles and he was much inclined to repose confidence in the power of such knowledge to prevent and retard depressions. Yet the severity and acuteness of the business drop in 1930 was without a precedent. But recovery was also rapid.

Among other hopes which now appear quite fantastic was that of making democracy universal by war. For now totalitarian governments in which terrorism runs riot, in which capital, labor, education and religion are regimented, are a great challenge to democracies. In short, mankind has been Christianized and civilized but partially. A better order is still to be achieved. The best use of our resources still has to be pondered. That will take time. The persuasive slogan, "the evangelization of the world in this generation" will have to be revised. A city is not builded in a day. Countless generations must pass away in working toward the perfect man and the perfect society. Yet mankind cannot live without the inspiration of some large goal. In nurturing this inner vision religion performs one of the greatest of its services.

REALITY

It should occasion no surprise to assert that in many respects a new order has already arrived. It is here in transportation, in communication and in productive power. It is here in the invention of new machines. It is here in new and tantalizing forms of public recreation. It has arrived in the creation of new and wonderful cities. It has come also in a declining rate of population growth and in the aging of the population. It is here in a kind of collectivism which paradoxically enough has been the gift of one

of the most individualistic of nations. An American correspondent, W. H. Chamberlain, has exposed effectively the collectivism which claims to be a Utopia but which suppresses initiative and liberty and which produces poverty instead of wealth. Yet a closer view shows that the march of business does standardize. The machine stands for mass production. By radio a continent listens to a comedian sponsored by an oil company. Gas, electricity and water comes from common sources of supply. It is claimed that fifteen million people a day see the same film; standardization in behavior, pleasure, food and taste.

The new order can be traced industrially through three stages. The first, an agricultural society, rather accidentally including slavery, took shape about 1765 and lasted on until 1865. Yet Whitney's cotton gin and the textile inventions brought over by Samuel Slater and others challenged that order early in our national history. The Constitution had opened up a continent to free enterprise. By 1850 the industrial society was in the ascendancy, although it took a civil war to prove that a second American revolution had come about. The years following that war were ones in which the great natural resources of earth's richest continent were for the first time in history actually used. The new captains of industry, the Carnegies, the Morgans, and the Rockefellers, the Astors and the Mellons counted their wealth in hundreds of millions while George Washington's estate, regarded as the greatest of his time, was inventoried at less than one million dollars. This order of industrial society went on unchecked by legislation, panic or war. The world war in fact gave a fresh impetus to industrialization. Prosperity was thought of as permanent and endless.

It was the depression that brought an outline of the third stage, which is a partnership between business and society. This partnership is but the expression of a felt interdependence, and it is rooted in a frequently ignored fact, namely, that while the nation grows richer in actual and potential wealth the greater number own less and less real property. The individual must live through skill in his job. Employment has become the concern of all or nearly all. The pressure and propaganda groups are an outcome of this new and delicate equilibrium which gives prosperity. When a threat arrives entrenched groups seek to consolidate their position, often with little regard for the common welfare.

RESPONSE

The new order has not arrived religiously, educationally, or socially. A wonderful response, however, has been made in most western countries, particularly in the United States, in creating institutions to serve these needs. Religious unity—unity among Method-

ists now approaching an institutional form—is something more than the work of a few leaders. It is an organic movement in the life of the church and of vital religion. It is an attempt to mate action with the idea of the "Kingdom of God." It is an answer to the sneers of a man like H. G. Wells who replies to the old saying "Christianity has never been tried" by asserting that the difficulty "is that Christianity in all its various forms never does try. Ask it to work out practical problems and it immediately floats off into otherworldliness." Those who have tried know the answer to that. And, moreover, succeeding is not something that is measurable by specific acts of legislation, nor in bridges nor houses, but in keeping alive a timeless vision of what is worthwhile.

Educationally the same comment is also applicable. Our schools and colleges, never so popular as now, have made many valuable contributions in research, in teaching specific skills, and in giving a certain amount of knowledge. Education has supplied a measure of social intelligence and of civic virtue. It must do more in this respect. It must supply a knowledge of what the social welfare consists of and it must give knowledge of the means for securing it. To do this it must, as Dr. Robert M. Hutchins insists, develop reason and the power to think. Reason has not failed, but something mistaken for reason has. Yet reason cannot function or exist long in a vacuum. Warmly human sympathy and social experience are also needed. Hence the activity programs of today's school.

The nature of the response required has perhaps been most effectively stated by some sociologists who stress the necessity of a social balance and harmony. They use the phrase cultural lag which means that there is a disproportionate growth in various phases of society. Concretely and without animus it might be illustrated in the history of the DuPont family. The founder of the family, DuPont de Nemours, came to this country one hundred and fifty years ago. He was a disciple of Adam Smith, a friend of Washington, and influential in the revolution. But compare the technical achievements and equipment of the DuPonts today with the simple handicraft technic of the founder of the family. It is a matter of congratulation that due to new products and inventions men have been put to work. But leaving aside the unverified claim of the latest representative of the DuPonts who has asserted that if given an entirely free hand he could put three million men back to work in new jobs there still lingers the question of whether social wisdom and good will matches the technical and scientific equipment. To make them equal is the real response required.

An experimental determination of new ideas and new concepts and methods is required as surely as the codification of the old. New occasions should teach

new duties. But in vain do we call old notions, such as honesty and kindness, fudge. The ten commandments do not easily budge. Some older and genuinely humane social ideals are still vital and applicable to all classes. Labor is entitled to recognition and so are the members of that broad class entitled consumers. A new automobile demands not so much a new idea as a new regard for safety.

One of the oldest of the social ideals of the western world is education. There is nothing particularly wrong with education. There is only opposition to it, and sometimes it comes from the least suspected places, that is, from some educators who are supposed to be the most eager to extend it. Having little faith in knowledge, scholarship and rational understanding they would make education a form of attitude manipulation or psychological "goldbricking." While they cannot determine a correct social policy, they do not hesitate to say that they know what attitudes to indoctrinate. In reality, however, the attitude manipulators do not so much distrust education, as that they hope that by indoctrination the line of social stability will be maintained until education is ready. Yet there is in reality no alternative to rational understanding which is the outcome of broad knowledge except irrational compulsion. A world that relies on coercion comes prominently into the social consciousness of today's youth. War in the East, bombs on Madrid, fear in Europe, Hitler in Austria, crime and unemployment in America, and rearmament all the way round. But surely the cure for irrationality is not the increase of it in the schools.

Social thinking, a term now used to describe varied forms of response men make to their environments, has two obvious forms. One is called *Utopian*. That has exerted a great influence. But it is not a safe guide to action. Another form is called *ideological*. This is the term given by Karl Mannheim for all those forms of rationalization in defense of the existing order. Yet there is a growing form of social thinking which may be called *organic*, a form which is rooted in reality, but which nevertheless looks constructively forward. This form does not exclude ethics, but incorporates it as a legitimate expression of human capacity. And it is a matter of current interest that one address of President Roosevelt which dealt with the maintenance of the morals of democracy was the occasion of favorable comment among his opponents. There is much to ponder in the statement of one of the country's rich men, J. D. Rockefeller, Jr., himself an authentic product of American ways, who recently said:

I believe the ideals of justice and right are bound to win against injustice and might. I believe we can make this world a worthy and beautiful world to live in instead of a place to fight and starve in. . . . This creed is based,

first, upon the conviction that there are certain fundamental and underlying things which do not change.

To which must be added the thought that these ideals do not exist "out there." They are, or must be within us, to have any effective existence. The response must be personal before it can be collective. The better order must find lodgment in ourselves before it can be enacted.

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Education for Family Life in the Secondary School Curriculum

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It is to be the purpose of this article to attempt a discussion of the merits, and a possible application, of the place of family life in the curriculum of a ninth grade social science course. So much is written about the necessity of teaching pupils about the tasks and responsibilities of family life and so little is actually accomplished! One can understand this when the multiplicity of criteria set up in any course designed as college preparatory is considered. It seems that in the ordinary curriculum the only place where a study of the family gets more than cursory treatment is the home economics class. Since the home economics group is generally a segregated one, and the subject is elective, not all the students have an opportunity to make a critical study of the family. Again, the study of the family as carried out in home economics courses is largely that of household economics rather than an inspection of the historical and contemporary significance of family life.

It is the purpose of this paper to outline a possible unit of study for ninth graders in a course two semesters in length. The particular situation needs some explanation. In the first place a social science course means so many different things to as many different people. If we arbitrarily select those subjects which any one student body needs, and if those subjects are in line with the needs of the community, then we may safely assume that such a course in social science is worthy of a place in the curriculum of that school. Certainly there is need for a unit of study in social

science courses that will at least open the students' eyes to some situations that have produced family instability which is so evident today.

This course should not be set up for the purpose of teaching young people how to have a successful family. That type of thing cannot be taught; it has to be learned. However some of the equipment for understanding the situation and some general knowledge about the conditions surrounding the family, can be studied. Socially desirable attitudes, of course, should be stressed.

In planning for this unit in the social science curriculum several considerations are obvious:

- (1) How well prepared is the teacher to handle the subject?
- (2) How much time in the course calendar is to be devoted to this unit of work?
- (3) How can the materials selected for instruction be evaluated in the light of the objectives of the unit?
- (4) What do the pupils know about the history of the family and family relationships?

Of the above considerations only the first and second can be easily determined. It would be unthinkable to place a teacher of poor personal judgment in charge of such a course. No neurasthenic with a biased outlook should be allowed to teach such a subject. Due to the mental hygiene implicated, the teacher should have a good background of psychology in addition to a considerable grounding in the

social studies. A successfully married teacher should be preferable to a single person, and certainly maturity is desirable.

As to the time in the course calendar; in this instance the set-up allows eight weeks for the study of the family. It appears from this that not more than eight major topics would be feasible. The topics selected in the outline submitted in this paper will be defended in turn.

The materials to be used will be meager during the experimental period of this course and will be developed as time and further study direct. No textbook is planned but general references, such as Harold O. Rugg's *Changing Civilization*, should be available. The knowledge of the instructor, and his ability to point the way in discussion, is emphasized. A bibliography of useful books and sources will be found in an appendix to this article. Since family life is a continuous process beginning with childhood, the experiences and knowledge of the pupils themselves will be utilized as is expeditious.

OBJECTIVES

Not to be confused by a welter of aims and objectives, it shall be the purpose of this unit to consider (1) the meaning and purpose of family life; (2) the ways in which each member of the family relates himself to this group experience; and (3) an understanding of the interrelation of the family and other social institutions, namely, the church, the school, and the state.

As to the pupils' present knowledge of the family it is suggested that the group be given the Bell Adjustment Inventory, or at least that this test be utilized by the teacher to acquaint her with the situation so that she may wisely select her topics and materials. A test of this type has a valuable place in instruction as it not only explores but has definite motivating influence through the type of question asked, which enlightens the pupil and causes some introspection.

It may be suggested that objective (2) is too much a matter of apperception for ninth graders, but it may be achieved through some problems involving their responsibilities as a member of the family, more particularly through a study of some related cases selected for the purpose. It will be noted that one of the topics in the unit is suitable for a presentation of this objective.

A critical analysis of the whole problem of such a course in the secondary school cannot be consummated here, if indeed it ever can be. The problem of the writer is not that of deciding what the residual of such a course would be, but rather to erect a course of study in the problem of the family from which to build through experience in the future. When it is considered that only eight weeks may be allotted to

this unit of study some charity may be justified for the selection of some topics and the elimination of others. Need of the pupils and the peculiar circumstances of the community have had their share in consideration of the final selection.

The method to be employed in teaching this unit can best be determined only after experience. But for a point of departure the eight topics will be organized so that there is provision for the better techniques employed in unit methodology. In general each topic will be outlined as follows:

- (1) Introduction (overview by the teacher)
 - (a) Statement of aims and salient information.
 - (b) Assignment of reading and topics.
 - (c) References available.
- (2) Leading questions which bring out the information necessary to an understanding of the problem and for purposes of stimulating further search for information.
- (3) A discussion period, for which the students will be expected to have prepared carefully thought out questions for socialized recitation period, or topics may be discussed by students as assigned or volunteered for on the first day of the unit.
- (4) A summarizing period during which, in place of leading questions, the teacher has prepared good questions of fact. This general review may also be partly used for prepared topic discussion if it is pertinent to a clearer picture.
- (5) An objective test will still further summarize the topic. Students will be allowed the privilege of "making up" the test if failed (following the general practice of the school).

(It is to be assumed that the references listed in the following outline will be available for the use of the students.)

UNIT II

The Family and Its Problems

Topic 1. The family today and yesterday. Its cultural background.

I. The purpose of this unit in Social Science 9a:

- (a) To see how the present American family compares with the American family of the past.
- (b) To understand the basic functions of the family.

II. Reading references:

- (a) H. O. Rugg, *American Civilization*, pp. (to be located by the student).
- (b) C. A. Ellwood, *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*, pp. 147-179.

- (c) H. P. Fairchild, *Elements of Social Science*, pp. 86-102.

III. Leading questions for class discussion:

- (a) What is a family?
- (b) What are the important functions of the family?
- (c) Why is the family called the primary face-to-face group?
- (d) What differences can you find in the importance of several functions of the family today and in the colonial days?
- (e) Why is family life more difficult to understand today than in primitive times?
- (f) Can you name any organizations in your community that carry some of the functions once held by the family?

IV. Class projects:

- (a) Come to class prepared to describe what you think to be an ideal family. Using the functions discussed by the class as a basis for your project.
- (b) Prepare questions for class discussion that you believe pupils in this community might find interesting and valuable to an understanding of this topic.

V. Summary:

- (a) Write a summary of this topic (in class) without recourse to references to see if you have a good grasp of the items discussed. In an additional paragraph tell what part of the topic needs more explanation or development.

VI. Objective test:

- (a) Multiple choice.
- (b) Definitive or short answer.

NOTE: These questions are to be made out by the teacher in keeping with the material discussed and should be of such nature that it is instructional rather than exploratory.

VII. The above is the minimum requirement. Suggested topics for extra credit will be posted by the teacher as each topic of the unit is introduced.

VIII. Additional references:

- (a) M. A. Elliott, F. E. Merrill, D. G. Wright and C. O. Wright, *Our Dynamic Society*, Chap. XVII.
- (b) L. I. Capen and D. M. Melchior, *My Worth to the World*, Chap. XII.
- (c) R. O. Hughes, *Building Citizenship*, Index.
- (d) E. A. Ross, *Civic Sociology*, Chap. VII.

Topic 2. Changes in American family life.

I. Purposes:

- (a) Since we found in Topic 1 that there had

been a change in American family life, as compared with colonial days, we shall want to note the changes specifically and learn the elements of that change and the causes.

- (b) To notice how many of the typical changes are found in our own community.

II. Reading references:

- (a) H. O. Rugg, *Our Changing Civilization*, Index.
- (b) M. A. Elliott, F. E. Merrill, D. G. Wright and C. O. Wright, *Our Dynamic Society*, Chap. XVIII.
- (c) L. I. Capen and D. M. Melchior, *My Worth to the World*, Chap. XII.
- (d) E. A. Ross, *Civic Sociology*, Chap. VI.

III. Leading questions for class discussion:

- (a) What are the economic changes apparent in the family?
 - (1) Cities and city life.
 - (2) Child labor and child labor laws.
 - (3) Women in industry.
- (b) Locate the political, that is legal, changes in the family.
 - (1) Changes in legal rights of women.
 - (2) Laws regarding authority of parents over children.
 - (3) The 19th amendment.
- (c) From your reading what changes have you noticed in the family from the social point of view?
 - (1) Influence of other institutions.
 - (2) Co-education and other forms of education for girls.
 - (3) Increased leisure time.
 - (4) Housing conditions.
- (d) What has been the influence of the Industrial Revolution on the family?
- (e) What is meant by the expression "the mobility of the family"?

IV. Class projects:

- (a) Write a story about the reactions of the present family changes that might occur in a colonial boy if he were to suddenly be placed in your midst today.
- (b) Find out the average size of the families represented by the members of your class and compare it with the average.

V. Summary:

- (a) Make an outline of the changes we have discussed in family life and be prepared to defend your outline before the class.

VI. Objective test.

VII. Extra credit:

- (a) Prepare a report on one of the following references:
 - (1) T. R. Williamson, *Readings in*

American Democracy, pp. 309-320.

- (2) A. H. Rice, *Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch*.

Topic 3. Problems resulting from changing family life.

I. Purposes:

- (a) To know the changes that have occurred.
- (b) To study some of the suggestions that have been advanced for meeting the changing situation.

II. Reading references:

- (a) M. A. Elliott, F. E. Merrill, D. G. Wright and C. O. Wright, *Our Dynamic Society*, Chap. XVIII.
- (b) E. A. Ross, *Civic Sociology*, Chap. VII.
- (c) L. I. Capen and D. M. Melchior, *My Worth to the World*, Chap. VII.

III. Leading questions for class discussion:

- (a) Why do people marry later in life than a century ago?
- (b) What is the danger resulting from smaller families?
- (c) Why should schools prepare pupils for better use of leisure?
- (d) What problems result from the mother working outside the home?
- (e) What conditions help to hold the rural family together?
- (f) How does overcrowding affect family life?
- (g) In what ways do other institutions compete with the home?
- (h) What are some causes for divorce?
- (i) Can you explain some of the suggestions for preventing divorce?
- (j) Has the government done anything to help meet the needs of the changing family?
- (k) What are said to be the advantages of woman's entry into politics, industry, and the professions?
- (l) What is meant by broken-homes, and what are some causes?

IV. Class projects:

- (a) The work of a Court of Domestic Relations.
- (b) Pros and cons of the topic, "Family Life Is Happier in Rural Than in Urban Areas."
- (c) Report on Kathleen Norris, *Mother* (or for extra credit).
- (d) Report on Chapter XIII in C. A. Ellwood, *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*.

V. Summary:

- (a) Write a summary of this topic using, and

organizing, the material included in the leading questions in Part III.

VI. Objective test.

VII. Extra credit:

- (a) See Part IV (c).
- (b) Make a booklet in which you depict scenes of American family life taken from newspapers and magazines and label them as they apply to this topic.

Topic 4. Problems of family finance.

I. Purposes:

- (a) To understand the mechanics of a budget.
- (b) To understand the needs for and the distribution of income in a sound budget.

II. Reading references:

- (a) R. M. Gavian, A. A. Gray, and E. R. Groves, *Our Changing Social Order*, Chap. X.
- (b) H. C. Hill, *The Life and Work of the Citizen*, pp. 581-583.
- (c) R. O. Hughes, *American Citizenship*, Index.
- (d) "Value of Time," *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, T:97.

III. Leading questions:

- (a) What is a budget? (R. M. Gavian, A. A. Gray and E. R. Groves, *Our Changing Social Order*, p. 185.)
- (b) Do most people spend according to a plan?
- (c) How does the way one spends indicate one's character?
- (d) What is the effect of advertising on the budget?
- (e) What items are generally found in a family budget?
- (f) What proportion of income should be allotted to each item?
- (g) Can you list three safe methods of saving or preparing for future security? (Be able to describe each briefly.)
- (h) Which member of the family should control the budget?
- (i) Should children have any part in the making of the family budget?
- (j) Look up Engel's Law and be able to explain it.

IV. Class projects (any one):

- (a) Construct a sample budget for a family of four earning \$3500 per year (considered essential income for Scarsdale according to Bradstreet's report).
- (b) Suggest a plan for managing double incomes that you think would be valuable to a husband and wife.
- (c) Show how installment buying is expen-

sive. (Use the purchase of an automobile as an example.)

- (d) Make a bulletin board on which are fixed various samples of savings bank and insurance company advertising copy. (School cardboard 5' x 3' is suitable and will be supplied.)

V. Summary:

- (a) Write a 200 word essay on the place of the budget in the home.

VI. Objective test.

VII. Extra credit:

- (a) Report on the section of Stuart Chase' book, *The Tragedy of Waste*, which deals with family income.
- (b) Prepare a report on "The evils of present day advertising." (Plan the talk for not more than four minutes.)

Topic 5. Relation of children to parents and the family members.

I. Purposes:

- (a) To see what the present day standards are in parents' and children's relations to each other.
- (b) To formulate an acceptable rôle for each.

II. Reading references:

- (a) M. A. Elliott, F. E. Merrill, D. G. Wright and C. O. Wright, *Our Dynamic Society*, pp. 226-227.
- (b) L. I. Capen and D. M. Melchior, *My Worth to the World*, Chap. XII.

III. Leading questions for class discussion:

- (a) What is the acceptable attitude of children toward parents in your community?
- (b) What rights have children in the home?
- (c) Should children be present during discussions involving family problems that affect them?
- (d) What standards would you set up for the relations of brothers and sisters in the family?
- (e) Should older children have all the privileges?
- (f) What does the State have to do about authority of parents over children?
- (g) Does parents' affection for children ever have unfavorable results?
- (h) Are boys as responsible for the success of the home enterprise as girls?
- (i) Why do young people sometimes feel that their parents are "old fashioned"?
- (j) Why would you think that "sharing things" makes for a better relationship in the family?

IV. Class projects:

- (a) Write a story about a family of five chil-

dren, all in school, and their home life during summer vacation.

V. Summary:

- (a) Due to the nature of this topic there will be no formal summary but members of the class are expected to prepare at least five general questions, not including those in Part III.

VI. Objective test.

VII. Extra credit:

- (a) Prepare a booklet of scenes in family life in which you think there are depicted good attitudes.

Topic 6. Making family life successful.

I. Purposes:

- (a) To see what some authors think successful family life is made of.
- (b) To see what part education and children themselves have in making the family a successful undertaking.

II. Reading references:

- (a) H. O. Rugg, *American Civilization*, Index.
- (b) M. A. Elliott, F. E. Merrill, D. G. Wright and C. O. Wright, *Our Dynamic Society*, Chap. XVII.
- (c) R. M. Gavian, A. A. Gray, and E. R. Groves, *Our Changing Social Order*, Chap. X.

III. Classroom discussion:

- (a) What are some of the factors involved in happy family life?
- (b) Are children necessary to successful family life?
- (c) Review the basic functions of the family and see if you can relate them to a happy family situation.
- (d) What is the significance of "mothers' day," "fathers' day"?
- (e) List ten factors which make for a successful family.

IV. Class projects:

- (a) Prepare good definitions for the following words:
1. family circle
 2. family lineage
 3. alimony
 4. domestic relations court
 5. sacrifice
- (b) Write an essay on "Why I believe the modern home has possibilities for producing happiness possessed by no other organization."

V. Summary:

- (a) Show how each of the ten factors in happy family life can be put into use in daily family life.

VI. Objective test.

VII. Extra credit:

- (a) Read Emily Post's *Etiquette* on children and their parents and compare it with remarks in class discussions.
- (b) Read Whittier's poem, "Snowbound," and see if there are passages that refer to the functions of the home—as we discussed them in class.

NOTE: The teacher will be responsible for considerable reading on this topic and must be cautioned not to preach but to use all due caution and reason. A. G. Spencer's *The Family and Its Members*, Chap. I; E. E. Walker, W. G. Beach and O. G. Jamison, *American Democracy and Social Change*. Topic 2 will prove valuable reading for the teacher in preparing her introductory talk.

Topic 7. The family and the community.

I. Purposes:

- (a) To find out what the family contributes to the community.
- (b) To find out what the community contributes to the family.
- (c) To see if these interrelations can be made stronger and more efficient.

II. Reading references:

- (a) R. O. Hughes, *Community Civics*, Index.
- (b) M. A. Elliott, F. E. Merrill, D. G. Wright and C. O. Wright, *Our Dynamic Society*, Chap. XXIX.
- (c) R. M. Gavian, A. A. Gray, and E. R. Groves, *Our Changing Social Order*, Chap. XXVI.
- (d) L. I. Capen and D. M. Melchior, *My Worth to the World*, Chap. VIII.

III. Leading questions for class discussion:

- (a) What activities of the community affect the home?
- (b) How do they affect the home?
- (c) Is the community taking more time from the home than in the past?
- (d) Is there any connection between good family membership and good community membership?
- (e) See if you can find at least six contributions that the community makes to the home.
- (f) See if you can find five contributions the family makes to the community.
- (g) Why do we often use the terms home and family as synonyms?
- (h) Where does public opinion have its real start?
- (i) Which of the American ideals found on

page 547 of R. M. Gavian, A. A. Gray, and E. R. Groves, *Our Changing Social Order*, are also applicable to the community and the family?

IV. Class projects:

- (a) List all the community organizations that contribute to your leisure time.
- (b) Suggest ways for better coöperation between the community and the family.

V. Summary:

- (a) Write a short paper proving that the purposes of this topic have been achieved.

VI. Objective test.

VII. Extra credit:

- (a) Write a report on pages 161-179 in *American Democracy and Social Change* by E. E. Walker, W. G. Beach and O. G. Jamison.
- (b) Make a cardboard bulletin on which are pasted scenes showing the interrelation of your own community and family life. Use school cardboard size 5' x 3'.

Topic 8. Some problems of courtship and marriage for young people.

I. Purposes:

- (a) To present to the class some of the information about marriage that authorities believe essential.
- (b) To attempt to show that there are some rules or conditions to observe here as in any other phase of life.

II. Reading references:

- (a) M. A. Elliott, F. E. Merrill, D. G. Wright and C. O. Wright, *Our Dynamic Society*, pp. 202-203.
- (b) R. M. Gavian, A. A. Gray, and E. R. Groves, *Our Changing Social Order*, Chap. X.

III. Classroom discussion topics:

- (a) Why do marriages fail?
- (b) What can society do to help marriage?
- (c) What are some of the procedures that have been suggested to legally strengthen the family (through marriage laws)?
- (d) Should boys and girls be trained for marriage?
- (e) Are colleges preparing young people for marriage?
- (f) What are some of the things young people should know who are contemplating marriage?
- (g) What is the value of recreation in strengthening family ties?
- (h) How may recreation serve as a means of widening the area of young people's acquaintances?

- (i) What effect do movies and literature have on our ideas of marriage?
- (j) What is eugenics?
- (k) How can you recognize "puppy love"?
- (l) Should marriage be considered a career?
- (m) Are long or short engagements important in a discussion of this problem?
- (n) How were marriages often contracted in the past?

IV. Class projects:

- (a) Read and report on Emily Post's account of procedure in courtship and compare it with the accepted practice in your community. (*Etiquette* pp. 299-311.)
- (b) Write an essay on the influence of differences in religion and social background in the success of marriage.

V. Summary:

- (a) Write a short paper on the topic "What I have learned about the problem of courtship and marriage from our classroom discussions and reading."

VI. Objective test.

VII. Extra credit:

- (a) Prepare a paper on "Courtship in Other Lands."

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American Thought and Culture

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It is time to reconsider the value of the methods and results of our public high school courses in English, history, and the social studies. In a world in which the advocates of communism, fascism and other anti-American concepts of life are pushing to the fore, both in theory and in fact, those who honestly believe in our American Way should insist upon a method and a result in our public schools which point toward that way. It is not the purpose of American education to indoctrinate; but if the millions of American dollars spent annually for education have any justification at all, it is certainly this: to further a knowledge, an understanding, and an appreciation of American thought and culture.

French and English students make a thorough study of their respective cultures—art, language, literature, history and institutions—correlated and integrated into thorough, comprehensible units adapted to age and intelligence levels. We, on the other hand, are content with a smattering of American history and less of American art and literature scattered and uncorrelated throughout the twelve years of

public schooling. The unsavory effect of this practice is all too apparent during political campaign years and constitutional crises, when the public—both high school and adult—displays its appalling ignorance concerning American ideals and institutions. However, one might not be too concerned if this were Japan, Russia, Germany, or Italy; but this is the United States, where seventy-five per cent of the citizens of age are wielding a powerful influence directly through public opinion and the ballot.

Since only a relatively small percentage of our people ever attend school beyond the high school, it is the duty of the American public high school to make it possible for the students to acquire a knowledge and an appreciation of American thought and culture. Though the efforts of our few non-partisan journalists, radio artists, and movie producers to educate the American masses are very commendable, we must not leave this job in the hands of those commercial and political controlled organs.

The principle of correlation and integration of related subjects has been accepted as sound educational

philosophy for some time. Many of our more progressive schools have, from time to time, attempted correlation and integration for the elementary and junior levels, especially within the sphere of the social studies. The results are varied and contradictory. Little, however, up to this moment has been done with correlation and integration for the senior levels in our public schools, with respect to subject matter courses such as American literature, American art, American history and economics, in an attempt to further a better understanding of American life. Interdepartmental jealousies, a cynical apathy toward our Americanism, especially its culture, large classes, and curriculum difficulties in those schools whose state organizations schedule American literature for the third year and American history for the fourth year, have all contributed toward the delay in this type of curriculum organization.

Experimenting in the field of curriculum reorganization and adjustment in order to challenge its students and prepare them for a progressing society, Le Roy High School,¹ in collaboration with the New York State Department of Education and Columbia University, inaugurated in January, 1937, a special, experimental, seminar course for superior students entitled "American Thought." The aim of this course, which consists of technically integrated units in American literature and American history, is to further a better understanding and a deeper appreciation of American literature and life. To fulfill this aim, a course of individualized and group study for superior students from the senior high level has been provided, in which American literature can be examined, read, and studied, with particular reference to the personalities, events, trends and forces that produced it. Likewise, the students through America's literature are assisted in integrating the personalities and in experiencing the political, economic, and social forces and trends which have been dynamic in the creation of American civilization and culture.

The literature resulting from those dynamic forces, with their personalities, is woven so as to obtain a comprehensive coherency, showing the relation of each part to part and the part to the whole, thereby making an authentic pattern of comprehensible Americanism. In the weaving of this pattern, a broad background of political, social, and economic knowledge, appreciations, and attitudes in the American Way of life and thought is provided. If such a course is properly executed, it will not only serve to encourage the students in the writing of good literature and correct composition, but will also serve as a unit around and through which the regular courses in American history, American literature, and English may be correlated.

The forces, trends, and events of the American scene and the literature produced by them are con-

sidered both chronologically and topically.

The American scene is divided into the following five chronological divisions for topical consideration and study: (1) Early and Middle Colonial, 1600-1750; (2) Independence, Revolution, and Union, 1750-1800; (3) Union, Expansion, and Disunion, 1800-1870; (4) National and Economic Consolidation and Imperialism, 1870-1900; (5) Twentieth Century Conflicts, Regulation, and Compromise.

First, the historical backgrounds, events, personalities, and ideas of the period are investigated through a study of the principal forces or movements at work. Then, the literature of the period, resulting from these forces or movements is considered.

In approaching each of the five periods, the students and teachers keep three questions ever before them:

1. What are the political, social, and economic forces and events of the period?
2. How are these forces and events revealed in and through the literature of the period? Are there important literary works unrelated to these forces and events?
3. What is the relative importance of this literature under consideration? Is it a masterpiece?

Special consideration is given to the more recent forces which have shaped our American thought, because they lie nearer to the student and have more intrinsic interest and cultural value for him.

Boas and Burton's *Social Backgrounds*, the required text, and suggested readings from selected original sources and standard secondary works provide the historical backgrounds. Anthologies such as Foerster's *American Poetry and Prose*, and Shafer's *American Literature*, assist the students in becoming acquainted with the writers and their works.

In preparing the selected reading lists for both the historical backgrounds and the literature of the periods, such factors as the following have been considered:

1. The interests and tastes of the students.
2. Variety and distribution among types of literature such as fiction and non-fiction, prose and verse, novels and short stories, plays, essays, songs, and letters.
3. A coherency to weave the American pattern.
4. A distribution representative of the period, personalities, trends, and forces.
5. Regents and college boards' suggestions and requirements.
6. Available library facilities.

The class method and procedure is patterned as near as possible after the college seminar or forum, with individual and group readings from suggested lists (historical and literary). For each period, there is a minimum reading requirement with a great elas-

ticity for additional readings. There are daily discussions of materials read and to be read, forces and literature produced. Individual papers which represent the student's readings, interpretations and appreciations are presented (for group reading and discussion) at the close of each five-week period. A more comprehensive paper, and individual or group project, is completed at the end of the course and presented to the class for discussion. The paper should treat the relationship between significant literary works and historical personalities, forces and trends, and should be prepared according to the rules of good literature and correct composition. Each student is required to keep his historical and literary readings (daily reports) with comments of appreciation and interpretation. Student participation in class discussions, oral and written reports of readings, and period

and term papers are used as the basis of grading.

Such a course as has been described is now quite experimental. It may be too advanced and idealistic for secondary school students. It is, however, in harmony with the two progressive movements in modern education—integration of subject matter and the provision of new type courses to challenge the superior students.

If this type of course provides, in some measure, a broad background of knowledge, interests, appreciations and attitudes in the American Way of life and thought, we feel that it is justified, worth while, and a real challenge to the senior high school, its students and curriculum.

¹ More information concerning this course may be obtained by addressing: Mr. E. W. Spry, Superintendent of Schools, Le Roy, N.Y.

They Shall Pass

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Economy seems to be the slogan in all lines of endeavor. The politician, the business man, the corporation are all crying "economy." Even the educator has taken up the cry.

There can be no fault found in true economy, but the great question is: When is economy actually economy, and when is economy not economy? Often we save pennies in the present only to lose dollars in the future as a result of such saving. In this frenzy to save and cut down expenses many of us are doing this very thing. However, it is not the purpose of this paper to discuss the problem of when economy is not economy, but rather to try to encourage certain economy in the social sciences. I say social sciences, for I realize that this plan will not work in all the studies of the curriculum.

When the French had been pushed back to the Marne by the Germans, the French leader made the historic utterance: "They shall not pass." We teachers have been accused by many of our students of taking up this slogan and applying it to our work. As an instructor of social science it is my belief and determination that, "They shall pass!"

Schools all over the country have cut down the actual number of teachers. In the meantime, the student body has been rapidly increasing. The increase is due, not only to the normal increase in population, but because so few boys and girls can

find work. They can go to school for about the same amount of money that they can stay at home. Therefore, many parents who formerly desired their children to work, send them to school. A large number of graduates are even returning to high schools instead of going on to college. Regardless of the cause, all of this has greatly increased the teaching load. We, as teachers, do not object to the extra work, but we finally reach a point where we cannot do full justice to the student. Thus, it is our duty to do all we can to keep the teaching load at a point where the student does not suffer in the quality and amount of instruction which he receives.

I desire to take this opportunity to call attention to the "repeater"—the student who spends from two to three years in completing the work in social science which he should complete in one year. I believe it is possible in the majority of cases to encourage, push, or practically compel the student to do enough work at least to "pass." That is, "pass" so that teacher and student can actually feel the grade is deserved.

It is not difficult for a teacher to fail a student, or should I say, let him fail. It is a far different thing to see that he actually passes. We are employed not to fail our students, but to see that they master the subject as nearly as possible. How can we accomplish this in social science?

To begin with, I do not state that we can take the inferior students and make them do excellent work, but I do feel that we can make them master all they are capable of mastering in one year. When we find the "repeater" in class, unprepared for his work so that he is unable to recite, have him spend the entire period outlining his work while the others recite.

The teacher should not want him to outline his work every day; therefore, at other times, let him read the lesson over and remain after school to write it up in composition form. Other poor students might prefer to read the lesson over and then write out questions and answers on the assignment. The student who does not like textbook work may have an interest in drawing maps, etc. Such pupils should be given credit for these. A student may be sent to the library to write a theme. He can be given credit for his efforts and for planning, if not for the actual quality of his work.

Some students do not care for class work, but enjoy reading historical novels. They may write book reports on these readings. Other students enjoy working out projects, such as salt maps, sand tables, designs, and wood carving.

I have had students who liked to draw and paint pictures. They began by making historical drawings and paintings. Through this medium they found an interest in history. Students who enjoy cartoons can apply the cartoons of today to the events of the past. There are always bulletin boards to provide interest. Students may be allowed to decorate them. I have not covered all the "extra" work that a teacher can employ to help the "repeater" through; there are other methods. If a teacher can encourage or push a "repeater" along with the class, a great service has been done to the school and I do not feel that the

student has been treated unjustly.

To all teachers who have had "repeaters" in social science work, let me ask this question: When the student repeated, did he do better work? I do not know the answer in every case, but I am sure that in the majority of cases the answer is "no." In fact, the student usually shows less interest (if possible), and at the end of the second year the teacher passes him only out of sympathy or to get rid of him. Two years were necessary to accomplish (?) what should have been done in one year. And if he passes the first year, he has a little more confidence in himself, keeps his self-respect and actually feels that he has earned his "D" (or the mark for "just passing"). The "repeater" seldom goes on to college, but if he does and he continues his social science work the teacher need not be ashamed. When the university or college checks his high school record and finds the "D," neither the teacher nor the high school is discredited.

At the beginning of this article I stated that this method will not work in all subjects. In mathematics, for example, if the student fails to grasp the first year course, he cannot hope to continue with the second year. However, I feel that it will work successfully in social science work where the student can do very poorly in his first year's work and yet do fair or even good work in the second and third year course.

Many teachers of social science may not agree with what I have set forth in this article—I do not expect them to. In fact, I do not want all to agree with me. Elbert Hubbard once said: "If I can make you disagree with me, I have done you a favor, for I have made you think." I trust that I have done the same.

A Summer in Europe

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There is probably nothing more stimulating to a social science teacher than travel, whether it be in this country or abroad. Historical events somehow never seem quite so vivid and real to one as when he can actually stand upon the ground where some decisive victory was won, or wander through halls and palaces which once echoed to the footsteps of kings and statesmen. Houses occupied by literary and historical personages make us feel a friendly kinship with the souls who once called them home.

When history thus becomes a vital, meaningful subject to the teacher, he cannot help transferring some of that enthusiasm to the minds of his pupils. The purpose of this article is to point out places in Europe of special interest to teachers of history, together with suggesting the best means of reaching those particular spots.

The point where one wishes to begin his travels in Europe depends upon where he wishes to end them and that matter is almost wholly one of tempera-

ment. While England probably presents more historical places to the square foot than any other country, England is a quiet country, presenting life in a very even tempo. Naturally, the American traveler has more in common with this country and for that reason he may wish to begin his travel there, then proceed to the more glamorous countries with their gay capitals as the grand finale to his summer abroad. For rather young people making their first trip, this order is strongly recommended because after six or seven weeks in places new and unusual in customs and costumes, with brilliant evening life in the cafés, concert gardens, or theatres, England is very likely to seem somewhat quiet and prosaic in contrast. Particularly, if one finds rain in the British Isles, which is not uncommon even in summer, he may feel that his trip is ending in drab colors.

On the other hand, the teacher of more mature years will doubtless enjoy the solidarity of English life and the even tenure of English ways, after a summer spent among people who seem to be giving so much thought to the pleasures of the physical being. He may like to feel that his last contacts in Europe were with our Anglo-Saxon cousins, with whom America must be very closely associated in facing the problems confronting the democracies of the world today.

In attempting to make helpful suggestions in this article, we shall follow the first course and begin with England, or perhaps better, with the British Isles. We wish to imagine that we are face to face with our readers, helping them to get the most out of their trip abroad, rather than writing some aids for the impersonal "one" who may sometime go to Europe. For that reason we are not using the formal "he," but the more direct "you," for we are trying to broadcast something helpful and useful.

In the event that you wish to see a great deal of the British Isles it will be well to travel on one of the liners making Cobh, in southern Ireland, its first port of call. A tender comes out to convey passengers ashore, and the moment you board it, you receive the good-humored welcome so typical of Ireland. There is nothing to detain you in Cobh, so you go at once by train (a thirty-cent fare) to Cork, a friendly Irish city. You will see here much evidence of the poverty we have come to associate with this part of the island. Be sure while here to ride in a jingle car—a two-wheeled cart—for it is not to be found farther north. There will be plenty of opportunity everywhere to ride in a jaunting car, another two-wheeled affair, where the occupants travel back to back, dangling their feet over the wheels. Cork is a point of departure more than a place to see, but you will want to hear the "Bells of Shandon" which have brought fame to the city. They ring frequently and long; we once counted six hundred peals at one ringing.

The next day you can go to Killarney Lakes, stopping off at Blarney to visit the castle and kiss the Blarney Stone if you do not mind being held by the feet, head down, and swung into space below to kiss the eloquence-giving stone. By the next train you may continue to the lakes with a change at Mallow, the place where Spenser wrote his "Faerie Queene."

The scenery at Killarney is truly magnificent, and there are many delightful excursions in the vicinity, but the teacher of history will want to spend a day driving through the estate of the Earl of Kenmare, or as the natives say it, driving through the "lord's demesne." After taking the drive, it is easier to understand why the Irish peasant has been so embittered over the vast holdings of the English nobles. Dublin is next on the route. The intervening country has been one of the bloody battlefields of history, for it is the territory where most of the fighting between the English and the Irish has taken place. We pass many towns reminiscent of the struggle between James II and William of Orange.

Dublin can be very nicely covered in a day of motor sightseeing, and the buildings connected with the Free State government can all be visited. At Trinity College you will want to see the Book of Kells, the finest illuminated text in existence; also the harp "that once through Tara's Halls."

A few hours' train journey from Dublin brings us to Belfast, the busy capital of North Ireland. There is opportunity here to go through the linen mills and the ship yards (where the ill-fated *Titanic* was built) and glean something of the industrial life of the people. If time is not to be counted, a profitable one-day trip can be made to Portrush by train, and from there by a little trolley of the Toonerville type, to the Giant's Causeway. American history teachers also like to take a short bus ride, about thirty minutes, from Portrush to Port Stuart in order to see the birthplace of President McKinley's parents.

A night crossing of the Irish Sea to Glasgow saves a day. However, if you wish to see the Robert Burns country, you may cross from Larne, near Belfast, to Stranrear, Scotland, on the late afternoon boat in two hours, spend the night at the only inn in the village, and go by early train next morning to Ayr, where by bus or trolley, you can go to the birthplace of the poet, the Auld Alloway Kirk, the Memorial, and Tam O'Shanter Inn. There are many reminders of Wallace in Ayr, an especially interesting spot being the shop where you take the bus for the birthplace. The man in the shop will gladly show you the yard and tell you the history.

An afternoon train gets to Glasgow in good time for dinner. With the long summer evenings—light enough for sightseeing until eleven-thirty—an evening might be spent in going to the Cathedral, famous in the struggles between Edward and

the Scotch. There will be time as well to see the renowned university on Gilmore Hall, the college of Watt and Knox. It is well to go early as the great gates close at nine o'clock. It is easily reached from the center of the city by taking the trolley marked "University."

The most delightful way to go from Glasgow to Edinburgh is the Trossachs Route through the Highlands. By train to Balloch, by boat on Loch Lomond, with its "bonnie, bonnie banks," to Inversnaid, thence by trolley to Stranalochar, again by boat the length of Loch Katrine, where a motor will be waiting to take you to Callander; here you board the train for Edinburgh. This lovely one-day trip through the Lady of the Lake Country costs only five dollars.

A full day of motor sightseeing in Edinburgh will include Saint Giles Cathedral, Holyrood where every stone seems to breathe of the unfortunate Queen of the Scots, the Castle, the War Memorial, and Queen Margaret's Chapel, where she prayed so earnestly for the safe return of King Malcolm from the English battlefield. Knox House, besides its association with the Reformer, is a perfect example of sixteenth century domestic architecture. In the evening it is pleasant to hunt out the homes of Scott, Burns, and Stevenson, all in the downtown area. It is as well to see them in the evening, as they are not open to the public at any time.

A day's tour through the Border Country is full of historical interest in addition to its including Scott's home at Abbotsford. It takes you to Dryburgh Abbey, Melrose Abbey—where the heart of the Bruce is buried, Jedburgh Abbey—intimately associated with Mary Queen of Scots, and Beymerside—the country seat of the late Earl Haig.

It requires a day from Edinburgh to London by train, the cost being about fourteen dollars. A private automobile trip would be ideal, but extravagantly expensive. Traveling by bus is both delightful and inexpensive, cost only seven dollars.

The journey may be broken at Carlisle or Gretna Green, well known for its eloping couples and marrying blacksmith, and another bus taken to the English Lake country: Keswick, Derwentwater, Thirlmere, Grassmere, and Windermere. The homes of the Lake poets are open to visitors. The night may be spent at either end of the Lake group, Keswick or Windermere. If at the former, it is interesting to go about a half-mile out into the country to the hotel at Portenscales, because Southey's church is here, and it is an excellent specimen of early church architecture. It is one of the few remaining edifices where we can see the "Devil Door" on the north, and the hideous sculptures on the baptismal font to scare away his satanic majesty at the time of baptisms.

The trip down through central England may be broken again at Oxford. Here you can see the several

colleges, and the Martyr's Monument on the spot where Ridley and Latimer were burned. Continue to Leamington Spa for the night. From this town there is a one-day motor tour of the Shakespeare country, including stops at Kenilworth and Warwick Castles. It is operated daily and arrangements may be made for it at the Regent Hotel on Main Street. The tour ends in Leamington in time to permit taking the evening train for London.

Traveling from Scotland to London by bus saves money and time, besides being more enjoyable for you pass through the heart of the charming English countryside.

Once in London, the best way to see it well is to take one of the many day tours of the city, covering the east end in the morning, and the west end in the afternoon. Stops are made at St. Paul's, Westminster, Parliament Buildings, and the Tower. While in London it is profitable to take one of the evening tours to the slum district: Stepney Green, Bethnel Green, Whitechapel, and Limehouse. The Frame Company on Southampton Row near Russell Square operate these evening trips.

At your leisure you can seek out the less spectacular points of interest: the Temple, for instance, is most fascinating. Take any bus for Fleet Street, and get off at Temple Bar. There is the great gate leading to the Inner Temple, Pump Court, Lamb's Chambers, Goldsmith's grave, and the Temple Church. Every history teacher will want to go into the church to see the effigies of the Crusaders on the floor; their legs are crossed in a manner to indicate how many times they went to the Holy Land. During the week it is necessary to get permission from the City Fathers to enter the church. A good way is to attend services there on Sunday. While in the Temple precincts, walk down to the gardens facing the Thames, where tradition says that the argument between members of the House of Lancaster and the House of York began the dispute which led to the Wars of the Roses. Red and white roses may be seen growing there today.

Leaving the Temple, proceed across the street to the old Cheshire Cheese on Wine Office Court Lane where Johnson, Goldsmith, and other worthies used to gather to enjoy the evening meal and indulge in wit or philosophy as the mood demanded. You may enjoy, for sixty cents, the same variety of lark pie and puddin' that tickled their palates.

Johnson's home is a few steps back of it, where you may enter and wander through his rooms until you reach the "Dictionary Attic"; there you will see the original edition of the famous work. In the same vicinity you will see Lincoln Inn Fields, Old Curiosity Shop, and Staple Inn, the oldest house in London, and one of the few that withstood the fire of 1666.

One day go to the Victoria and Albert Museum,

a veritable treasure house of historical objects. While in that vicinity it is easy to take a short bus trip to Chelsea (five cent fare), where are the homes of Carlyle, Leigh Hunt, George Eliot, the Rossettis, and Turner. Women teachers, who are members of the A.A.U.W., will want to lunch at Crosby Hall, near Carlyle's house. To do this it is necessary to present one's membership card for identification.

If you become surfeited with things historical, spend an afternoon at Kew Gardens to become refreshed. The National Gallery, the Tate Gallery, the National Portrait Gallery, and the Wallace Collection will also make bids for your time. On certain days of the week and on Sundays they are open to the public free of charge.

There are three one-day tours out of London, costing about five dollars each, that are both delightful and profitable. One is north to Sulgrave Manor, the ancestral home of George Washington. En route you pass through the Bunyan country. The second one is to Canterbury by way of Rochester, for the Dickens associations. The third day takes you to Stoke Poges—the scene of Gray's *Elegy*, Eton College, Windsor Castle, with the return trip by way of Hampton Court and a glimpse of Runnymede, truly an historical trip.

If the time set aside for England permits, there is a one-week motor tour of Devon and Cornwall, by the way of Winchester, and Salisbury, and the King Arthur Land. Another week's tour is to Wales by way of Bath and Chester. In London it is far better and more economical to engage a room at the hotel, without engaging luncheons and dinners there. In England the price of a room always includes the breakfast and a bath, not private. When taking day motor tours, the price of the tour always includes lunch, and as there is no refund at the hotel for meals missed, it is wiser not to engage them. It is pleasant to eat at some of the historical places, near where you are sightseeing; much precious time is wasted returning to the hotel for a meal. London has an almost endless number of what is known as "private hotels" or "board residences," where good accommodations for room and breakfast may be had for eight or nine dollars a week if it is necessary to limit the cost of the trip.

The usual way to go to the Continent is the short day route from Dover to Calais. Another way, if Holland and Belgium are on your list of "musts," is to cross from Harwich to the Hook of Holland by night steamer, thus saving a day. From the Hook, go by train to The Hague. Here visit the Peace Palace, then take the 100 mile motor excursion to Amsterdam, Vollenham, Edam, and back to The Hague. Early the next day you get to Brussels. One-half day by motor will give you a good picture of the city, and the afternoon will be free for a bus

trip out to the Battlefield of Waterloo. Brussels has excellent theatres if you crave evening entertainment.

When Germany, Switzerland and Italy are to be included, it is a large saving in time and money to go from Brussels to Cologne by train, there taking the steamer for the trip up the Rhine. Leave the boat at Bingen and continue by train to Heidelberg to see the castle so rich in history, and the medieval university, where the student prison on the top floor can be inspected. If Berlin is on the itinerary a pleasant ride through the Black Forest region is available. The history teacher will want to break the journey in Saxony to see Wittenberg—the home of Martin Luther, and a city teeming with buildings and homes associated with the Reformation.

Two hours by train and you are in Berlin. Be sure to take the trip down the Havel River to Potsdam to see Sans Souci—home of Frederick the Great, the Garrison Church where he is buried, and New Palace, the favorite residence of the kaisers.

With little added expense, Prague and Vienna may be included as a round-about way of reaching Munich. Third class travel is very comfortable in Germany, and if you speak the language you will enjoy this class of travel as it gives a good opportunity to meet more of the middle class of the German people. By taking an early morning train from Berlin, you can stop over a couple of hours in Dresden long enough to visit the Art Gallery and see the Sistine Madonna. It will amply repay the effort. Even by doing that you will arrive in Prague in time for a late lunch. Here is one of the richest mines of things historical in Europe. There is so much connected with the Thirty Years War, with Charles IV, and with the Jewish history of the city. There is the fine old Jewish Quarter with its Hebrew clock, and cemetery with graves dating back to the year 900 A.D. Gorgeous St. Vitus Cathedral, and the President's Palace are just two among the many things to fascinate. The gay-costumed peasant women with their baskets full of beautiful embroideries sometimes allure women teachers—even those of history—away from the historical sights. From Prague to Vienna consumes but half a day. Schonbrun, the home of Maria Theresa, and all the other Hapsburgs is one of the main points to see. The Prater too must be seen, remembering that it was planned to amuse the delegates to the Congress of Vienna after Napoleon's downfall. From Vienna there is a reasonable two-day steamer excursion down the Danube to Budapest and return.

At Munich many days could profitably be spent, but a couple will give ample opportunity to visit the scenes connected with the Bavarian kings, and to enjoy the marvelous art galleries. The regular sight-seeing tour about the city includes also some of the leading Bavarian industrial plants.

One of the most charming ways of reaching Italy is to go by train from Munich to Oberammergau. Even if it is a year when the Passion Play is not being given, the village is just as entrancing and the natives just as interesting. From here take a bus to Innsbruck over a mountain road winding through some of the most gorgeous scenery in the Austrian Tyrol. Or, if you are musically inclined you can go by the route to Salzburg and include the Festival. From either place take the mountain railroad to the village of Cortina in the Dolomite region. This is an ideal place to break the journey for the night. The following day go by bus (passage may be engaged at the Hotel Savoy) through the Italian battlefields by way of Pordoi Pass to Venice, or more correctly, to the end of the mainland where you will be met by gondolas to convey you to your hotel.

Historical places in Venice including the Doges' Palace, St. Mark's Cathedral, and the many others are too well known to require mention here.

At Florence there are the buildings associated with the Medici family, especially Cosimo and Lorenzo; others, especially St. Mark's Convent is linked with the life and sufferings of Savonarola. The art galleries will consume a day, and if there is time by all means motor out to the Certosa Monastery where the monks take the vow of perpetual silence. The trip requires less than half a day.

If time is no object, there is a nice bus route through the hill towns to Rome; otherwise take the train. At Rome it seems that everything you see is historical. If possible, allow three full days for sight-seeing by motor, yet if necessary, it can be done quite satisfactorily in two days. After full days, it will be restful and refreshing to go to the Borghese Gardens in the evening, sit in the great park at tables with six thousand others, and listen to an orchestra, or watch the performance on the outdoor theatre stage. By simply purchasing a dish of ice cream you will be entitled to a seat at the table until the lights are out at midnight.

The train ride to Naples is short, and a half day here will suffice to see the museum where there are housed many of the finds at Herculaneum and Pompeii. Now a law forbids the removal of things excavated from the spot where they are unearthed. From Naples you can take a one-day circular tour to Pompeii, Amalfi, and Sorrento, with the return from the last-mentioned place by steamer across the bay to Naples.

Going north again, Milan makes a good place to break the journey. Of course, there the cathedral is foremost in interest, with St. Ambrose's Church and the Chapel della Grazia—home of Da Vinci's "Last

Supper" close seconds. Also be sure to see the cemetery, as unique as it is famous.

From this point southern France and Switzerland make joint bids for our company. Both have lovely scenery. Historically, both have much to offer, so your choice will depend upon whether you wish to stress medieval or modern history. If you are seeking the latter, go to the Italian lake region, stopping over at Stresa on Lake Maggiore from which place you can make excursions. Here was the meeting place of the recent Stresa Conference; you can motor to Locarno, where the famous, if not too solid pact was signed.

Thence on to Geneva to see the buildings of the League of Nations and the International Labor Organization. Then too, there are the places associated with John Calvin and the Swiss Reformation. On the way to Geneva a stop may be made at Montreux to visit the Castle of Chillon a strategic center when the Duke of Savoy was a prominent figure in sixteenth century European politics.

From Geneva you will reach Paris by an eight-hour train trip. Paris literally breathes history. Here we meet the ghosts of the Louis', of Marie Antoinette, of Richelieu, and of Napoleon, to say nothing of the Pompadours and the Du Barrys. Do not miss the Pantheon with its pictorial history of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Take a motor tour to Versailles Palace, by the way of Malmaison, the home of Napoleon and Josephine. Another day motor to Fontainebleau. The Chateau Tour is considered an expensive one, but there is a way to make it very reasonably. For a dollar and a quarter you may go by train to Blois, noted for its beautiful chateau. At the station you may, for two dollars, purchase a ticket entitling you to a motor trip of great beauty through the Chateau country, visiting the one at Chambord, Chaumont, and Cheverny. Return to Blois for the night. The next day go by train (one dollar and a quarter) to Tours, to see the place where in a decisive battle Charles Martel turned back the Mohammedan horde. By train, a two dollar fare, you return to Paris.

Now there are very excellent one day tours to the battlefields, covering those places most familiar in the American phase of the war; yet of course, you will not see the horrors that they presented in the days just following 1918.

We realize that the trip we have outlined is sketchy; it barely touches the high spots of historical Europe, but we had in mind a first trip which must be covered within the limits of a summer vacation, and after all, we cannot see the whole world in two months.

The Bulletin Board on Special Days

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Within recent years the bulletin board has become a necessary piece of equipment in every social studies classroom. This is not to say that all such classrooms are *adequately* equipped with bulletin boards or "tack boards." Modern architects who specialize in the designing of school buildings realize that social studies classrooms require extensive bulletin board space. The writer of this article expressed his ideas concerning bulletin boards and their use in an article in *The Historical Outlook*¹ several years ago. This present article may be regarded as supplementary to earlier suggestions on bulletin boards.

It would seem that at least a minor part of the work of the social studies teacher should be that of calling attention to and interpreting the various holidays, special anniversaries, and special weeks which fall within or border on the field of the social studies. In fact, many such anniversaries may go unobserved or unnoticed except in the history and civics classes. The more generally observed holidays will be made evident in all departments of the school through special exercises and decorations in classrooms. Nevertheless, even such well-known holidays as Washington's Birthday, Lincoln's Birthday, and Thanksgiving may well be used as opportunities for use of the bulletin board in the social studies room for making these subjects more vital, interesting and attractive. The indoctrination of the students with the teacher's own ideas as to war and peace or the relative greatness of national heroes need not enter into this phase of the use of the bulletin board. Yet, it might as well be remembered that the student may secure a surplus of emphasis on war and military preparedness in his reading of newspapers and magazines as certain holidays near. The teacher might well present the other side on such occasions as Armistice Day and Memorial Day, our war memorials, veterans' hospitals, etc. This can readily be done without detracting in any way from the true spirit of patriotism or national pride.

On important holiday occasions the entire bulletin board (if there is only one) may well be used. The files of pictures containing appropriate photographs and illustrations may be drawn upon, but at the same time the current newspapers and periodicals should be searched. Unusual or less common material should be used. Historians and newspaper editors

are constantly turning up new material on the lives of Lincoln, Washington, Jefferson, Lee, Grant, and other national heroes. Another unique angle of approach for such occasions is to lay out a holiday bulletin board from the state point of view. Lincoln lived in three states. In his travels as commanding officer of the armies and as President, Washington visited many states. Newspaper pictures, snapshots, drawings, maps, and other materials relating one of our national heroes to the particular state, should emphasize the local as well as the truly *national* character of all our great men.

Another case in point of current interest is the commemoration during 1937 and 1938 of the first settlement of the Northwest Territory. This celebration has a local interest for many of the states east of the Mississippi River. Newspaper material and other publications available from the Commission² provide excellent bulletin board material.

It has always been the belief of the writer that as much care should be used by the teacher in planning and setting up a bulletin board display as in preparing the actual work of the recitation or class period. Furthermore, the teacher's work in arranging such a bulletin board may well be done as the work of a window trimmer is done—at some time when the regular "audience" is absent. The element of surprise heightens the effect.

A word might be added as to the mechanical aspects of the bulletin board display. The board should be of sufficient size and thickness to permit proper display of materials and use of satisfactory tacks or other fasteners. Overflow material may be placed on display rail or taut wires. In fact, for many such special days the entire wall surface may become a bulletin board. Such occasions should be anticipated by the teacher at the beginning of the year.

The holiday bulletin board should go far along with other visual education equipment in aiding certain types of children to secure the proper understanding of social studies ideas and attitudes. The use of national, state, and foreign flags as well as banners and pennants which are used on many occasions should add color and interest as well as supply an incentive for further knowledge concerning the countries, states, and occasions which these materials represent.

The good social studies teacher will not hastily pin a few scrappy clippings to the bulletin board and then wonder why so little interest is shown. The good teacher will not be content with the incomplete offerings of one small-town newspaper for bulletin board material, but will utilize to the fullest extent the offerings of the metropolitan newspapers (particularly their Sunday editions) as well as magazines and pamphlet material.³

¹ "The Bulletin Board and Back of It," *The Historical Outlook*, XXIII (March, 1932), pp. 118-123.

² Northwest Territory Celebration Commission (Federal), Marietta, Ohio.

³ Almost all important anniversary occasions such as the Northwest Territory Sesquicentennial, the Constitution Sesqui-

centennial, the Horace Mann Centennial, and others are noticed by special feature articles in magazine or feature sections of such newspapers as the *New York Times*, the *Chicago Tribune*, and the most important newspapers in state capitals. The commissions set up to provide for observance of these occasions usually have free or low-cost material. Members of Congress can often procure government documents relating to such occasions.

Posters have become an important item for school bulletin boards. Many agencies of foreign governments which distribute travel literature as well as some state and regional publicity bureaus provide such material. These may often depict a person or place of direct interest to social studies students.

School libraries that make use of the Vertical File Service of the H. W. Wilson Company will find their Vertical File Catalog a guide to much of the best of pamphlet, map, and poster material. *School Life* lists government publications of value to teachers. This official publication of the federal Office of Education is obtainable from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

Education Under Fascism

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BACKGROUND OF FASCIST EDUCATIONAL THEORY

Fascism may be defined as a subordination of individual rights to the advancement of national claims. It suppresses freedom of speech, discourages thinking and disfavors political, scientific and even economic advancement by interference with the exchange of ideas. Fascism does not believe in the possibility or utility of perpetual peace, for only by war, say the fascists, can all human energies be raised to the maximum and a seal of nobility be set upon peoples which have virtues to undertake it. The fascist accepts and loves life as a duty and a conquest, a conception quite in contrast to the doctrine which forms the basis of the so-called scientific or Marxist socialist doctrine which teaches a creed of historical materialism according to which the history of human civilizations is to be explained only by the clash of interests between various social groups and by changes in means and instruments of production. Fascism is opposed to class war; it is opposed to both the democratic ideology and liberalism; it holds that the twentieth century is an age of "collectivism," a century of the state.

The cornerstone of the fascist doctrine is a conception of the state as absolute and of individuals and groups conceivable only inasmuch as they exist in the state. "The state is the present, the past, and above all the future."¹ Fascism wants the state to be strong, and organic. It desires that it shall rest on a wide popular foundation, a will to power and empire. To realize such an ambition is to require discipline, coördination, and sacrifice on the part of its people. Education is important as a means of

social control and its character is colored by the political form of societies. In the totalitarian state education is directed toward an ultimate subordination of all individuals to the will and guidance of the state as represented and expressed by a dictator or by a party, and the outcome of such education is measured by obedient submission to and acquiescent acceptance of whatever ideology the state may prescribe: "In the totalitarian state education is dominated by a body of social, political, economic, and national doctrines, convictions, and ideals which serve as a basis of national solidarity which it is dangerous for the individual to question."² In Russia Marx, Engels, and Lenin have taken the place of the Bible; in Germany it is Hitler's *Mein Kampf* which has replaced the Gospels; in Italy it is educational reform toward a broader philosophy. Each of the revolutions has been marked by terrorism and violence with concentration camps or penal colonies as punishment for non-conformity; stability and solidarity are established through propaganda, intolerance, and hatred by means of secret police. Thus there is to be found in Russia, Germany, and Italy "a hierarchical system of administration, built in the form of a pyramid, at the apex of which stands a supreme dictator, with each member of the hierarchy subject, in the first place, to the party which in this way becomes synonymous with state, although in the minority numerically."³

EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND IDEALS

Education is perverted by the growth of nationalistic sentiment; in Germany, especially, it is designed

to produce a dislike for foreigners—schools, movies, theaters, literature, and the press. There are three important causes for such a situation according to Will Durant: (a) economic and tariff struggle, (b) mutual hostility and suspicion caused by the armament race, and (c) the rise of the fascist and nazi movements and their counterparts and parallels in other countries.⁴ There exists a strong relationship between education and nationalism, and nationalism has been a determining factor in the shaping of German and Italian schools. Prior to the fascist state educational standards and conditions varied. But fascism declares the individual exists for society but that the individual is not ignored, merely subordinated to society with the right to develop his personality safeguarded. Fascism aims to strengthen the bonds of nationality through cultivation of a common culture by means of a sharp differentiation between elementary and secondary schools, perfection of detail in method of organization and selection of subject matter taught, and compulsory religious education. Elementary schools represent the true formative school of the masses with attention focused on cultural and spiritual development; secondary schools represent subjects developed at the expense of scientific training, with classics as a fundamental basis. Teaching is to be "a live spiritual force, acting on the mind and stimulating creative activity."⁵ "Fascism aims at the creation of a new school system which imparts energy of thought and will to rising generations; it aspires to develop a culture that will represent the consciousness of all the manifold and fertile powers accumulated by the Italian race throughout its history."⁶

The basis of fascist educational reform is the belief that idealism has an important influence on the development of personality, an inculcation in every pupil of a feeling of national consciousness. Minister Goebbels says, "revolutionary forces must be directed into all channels of public life . . . the state must stand for the principle of totality."⁷ "To become a soldier is the aim of every Italian. A book, a rifle, a perfect fascist, says Mussolini."⁸ Fascism represents the supreme expression of the Italian nation and Mussolini is always right. In Germany "women are servants of men; men are soldiers of the state; Adolf Hitler is the state. The object of our education is to produce the political soldier," with emphasis on discipline, training and order.⁹ A reorganization of education is taking place to purge the German people of the "virus of freedom" imbued in them during the republican era. Formal education is designed to develop emotion, then intelligence and thus result in loyalty, self-sacrifice, and silent acquiescence to the group. The school can give only knowledge and understanding; real character can be trained only through the organization of

youth through physical training, creative activities, and heroic realism. "Believe! Obey! Fight!" is the Italian motto.

Italian "integration" is complete for Italian schools are state controlled and the children's spare time is filled with the activities of the young fascist group such as the Wolf Cub, the Balilla, and Avanguardisti, whose avowed purpose is to turn out good soldiers. Praise of the Aryan race, hatred for the Jews, and contempt for other "inferior and democratic races" are doctrines drilled into the minds of young Germans in schools: "Race, Arms, Personality, and Religiosity." Nazi education rejects everything "liberal" as contrary to the German spirit and everything is exploited to furnish a justification for this new education. The nazi purpose is "to turn out a generation of youth drilled in party doctrines and objectives, ignorant of all other considerations, contemptuous of other races of people, equipped with powerful bodies and narrow minds for the work of the state, especially its supreme work, WAR."¹⁰ Thus it would seem that this scheme of education, coupled with other propaganda, is designed to prepare the German people for hunger and misery to glorify privation in the interest of Hitler's state with the consequent result of Germany's being shut off from all intelligent intercourse, ignorant of the outside world of ideas and interests. Thus the German people are being conditioned in a feeling of resentment for the day when Hitler is ready for war. The declared purpose and program of German education today is to crush all liberty of instruction and independent search for truth and to incorporate German youth in home, folk, and state by "an awakening of sound racial forces and cultivation of them with political goals consciously in mind."¹¹

Hitler's educational reforms mean the establishment of a separate and purely political school system under the sole auspices and control of the nazi party for the training of future leaders of the state and party.¹² For the purpose of nazi education, science is significant only in so far as it is nazi; anything of international applicability is a subversive lie. "Science, like every other human product, is racial and conditioned by blood."¹³ The same view is held true in mathematics—a purely racial basis.

Militarization forms an integral part of the Italian educational program since the law of 1934 making instruction in military subjects compulsory for all years through the university. Herein lies an ominous indication of educational preparation for future wars.

In America the tendency is to think of preparation for citizenship wholly in terms of a single subject or complex of subjects, for example, the "social studies"; but in the program of the German schools, under the nazi regime, every subject is made to con-

tribute to the dominant ideology. The same is true in Russia and Italy. In addition to the German school, the Hitler Youth Organization, the Landjahr, the Work Service Agencies share responsibility for inculcating in youth the spirit of national socialism. Apart from mathematics, language, and natural science, emphasis is placed on community civics, physical education, "racial hygiene," history of the German race, heroes of war, and "religious instruction." All subjects must be taught by orthodox nazi principles. The spirit of the classroom is, "We will, Adolf Hitler, so train German youth that they will grow up in your world of ideas, in your purposes, and in the direction set by your will. That is pledged you by the whole system of German education from the common school through the university."¹⁴ In Italy both elementary and secondary school education is conceived from the point of view that the student is a human being and a future citizen of Italy. Higher education is broad, easily accessible, but obtainable only on the basis of ability and earnestness. Secondary school programs emphasize inductive thinking through general preparation except in the natural sciences where there is a marked lack of equipment. In 1933-34 96% of the Italian children of secondary school age were enrolled in one of the several divisions of the Balilla organizations. In the Italian elementary school illiteracy is still an important problem. Adult education is under the control of the national Balilla institutions and in 1933-34 there was a total of 2,162 schools with 80,999 pupils attending; with 236 vocational schools in addition.

In Germany, while education is universal basically, admission to institutions of higher learning is a restricted party affair. Before admission a student must serve a season in a labor camp, win the approval of the local youth leader, and receive the stamp of "politically reliable." Even these students are not sure of admission because the number admitted is arbitrarily limited. After admission and completion of the academic work a student cannot secure a licentiate until he has demonstrated his Aryan purity, passed examinations and received the approval of the state minister of education. Students admitted to German schools are selected on the basis of mental prowess and personality and the mortality rate is high owing to the continuous weeding out process. German secondary schools offer no choice in selection of subjects, each of the nine forms is given a schedule, to be adhered to rigidly, designed "to educate physically and mentally outstanding young Germans of good character in a manner which will enable them later to take a decisive part in the shaping of the political, cultural, and economic life of the nation."¹⁵ Thus is to be accounted the marked decrease of 20% in the school population since

1930. The year 1934 showed a loss of 13.1% in boys and 18.8% in girls. In fact the number of students in the Sexta (the lowest grade) in 1934 decreased to the level of 1907. If the present trend keeps up 1937 will equal the level of 1900. Jewish children have been separated into compulsory public schools of their own since Easter, 1936, because it was held that upon investigation Jewish pupils disturbed the atmosphere in which those results could be obtained that the Ministry of Propaganda regards as advantageous. Hitler declares, "The schools must close the gaps that death tears in the ranks of our generation. . . . Germany does not die with us, and from the schools shall rise new life for the future."¹⁶ In 1933 a law was enacted creating a student union in every university and welding these together into a national organization. Each organization was to be composed of Aryans, led by nazis under nazi direction, and ordered to report on professors to be expelled for their Jewish origin. Special reports were asked for on professors whose political and teaching methods were "correct." Thus the German university has been "turned into barracks for housing and promoting interests of the Faithful"¹⁷—and the same is true in schools in the lower ranges. Nowhere in German education is any critic of the national socialist creed tolerated—and outward conformity, if not enthusiastic devotion, to official doctrine prevails, even in confessional schools maintained by Catholics under the papal settlement with Hitler.¹⁸ Under the nazi system the Reich is at liberty to promote, demote, transfer, or dismiss teachers and professors at will.

In imitation of the army, Italian boys are grouped in legions commanded by school teachers belonging to the militia and commanders of the *Avanguardisti* are militia officers. These legions are entrusted with the physical education of Italian youth by means of all forms of athletics, fascist propaganda lectures, trips, and library work. In all cases military aims are dominant and titles of merit are awarded for acts of bravery and examples of strength of character and will. The education of women is infused with the military spirit in much the same manner. And this same spirit of militarism, hatred, and aggressiveness is carried from secondary into higher education; the same is true of the exaltation of fascism, its concepts and policies. By the decree of January, 1927 any school may be abolished by the Italian government if its teachings are found "incorrect"; also teachers and professors may be dismissed by government order. Thus, as in Germany, all academic freedom is suppressed in Italy. In this manner is Italy imbued with a spirit of discipline and a supreme ambition for war for education has led them to believe in war as the highest form of self-expression and the only way of acquiring new territory to aid Italian over-population. Consequently in the military

outlook of Italian youth is planted the seed for future European wars—a menace to world peace.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS

It is interesting to note a few of the actual procedures in German and Italian schools. At least 95% of all new Italian juvenile titles are those dealing with war: "Flying in the World War," "Experiences on the Sea Front"; since 1935 teachers have been supplied with "Material on Military Defense for Instruction in German History"; "Mathematics and Defense Athletics" cover a course in mathematics—estimating distances, sound, problems of hand grenades and guns with "map-reading" and topography. "School Experiments in Chemistry of War Materials" offers a discussion of poisons, gases, a text written in collaboration with a phosgene manufacturing company in Hamburg. A summary of the first three Italian general readers reveals 16 pages devoted to personal anecdotes about Il Duce, 26 to fascism, and 90 to some phase of war, 5 pictures of Mussolini, 31 showing the fascist uniform or emblem, and 36 featuring rifles, 11 maps of Italy and her colonies; not one shows other continents, not even Europe. Enrollment in fascist youth organizations is not compulsory but texts teach that "all Italian boys are Balilla" and each child is given an application by his teacher and, if his parents object to his joining, reasons must be stated to the proper authorities. In 1928, 1,236,000 Italian children were enrolled; today the number has been doubled. The Balilla and Piccole automatically graduate into a higher society and become Avanguardisti of Giovane Italiana. Hans Nabholz summarizes the national social attitude toward formal education as "a striving for uniform educational opportunities for the entire nation. Up to now there were various and sundry organizations with different philosophies as to the ends of education. This variety must give way to organic uniformity. The different types of secondary education must be reduced and presecondary schools must become an integral part of secondary and higher school system."¹⁰

RECENT STATUS OF FASCISM IN EDUCATION

It has been said that the barracks regime for intellectuals is the distinctive hallmark of fascism. The importance of education for national welfare was well illustrated by the last war, and since the national life of a people is embodied in its educational system the problem of educational control is the care of the life of a nation. Fascism has done much to improve the educational institutions of Italy under the guiding impetus of the Gentile reform of 1923 chiefly in the new spirit which has been inculcated into Italian education. The predominant note has been nationalism and while,

today, the spirit of the Gentile reforms remains unchanged, Mussolini admits that changes have taken place because education is a continuous changing process. "Fascism is the exaltation and ennoblement of all elements concurring to form and assure the greatness of Italy—and the problem of its greatness, above all, is a problem of education and culture."²⁰ The new Germany seeks to inculcate and perpetuate the principles upon which the government operates. Works, of all kinds, form the vision for German youth. Nazi education examines Nazi qualities and dramatizes and idealizes them for the benefit of its people. "The chief task of the school is the education of the young for service to the nation and state in the spirit of national socialism. . . . In their claim on the young, the schools of Adolf Hitler must give sympathetic consideration to the coöperation of parents in education and to the preservation and fostering of family life."²¹ In the light of this declaration in October, 1934 a school council was decreed to serve in an advisory capacity as an aid to the school principal. Germany also insists upon two new educational procedures, the *Landjahr* and the *Lehrgänge* to coördinate home and nation, rural and urban life, sound mind and sound bodies.

THE GENTILE BACKGROUND

The historical background of fascist education is rather interesting. Professor Giovanni Gentile, Italian philosopher and educator, was appointed by Mussolini as Minister of Public Instruction October 31, 1922 and in twenty months the Italian school system was completely reorganized. The Gentile theory declares, "Since man is neither object nor nature, but mind and process . . . , the science, which studies the education of man, that is, the science of the formation of the mind can be neither empirical or naturalistic. It cannot limit itself to analyzing the mind as a thing, but must identify itself with philosophy, which is after all 'the science of the whole development of the mind as freedom.'"²² Gentile's conception of the state is derived from Hegel who taught that liberty is to be sought and won. Education must evoke the common will in the individual which then becomes law and the state. Hence law, morality, and government are not superimposed but are the very essence of the individual. Gentile expanded the Hegelian moral state into what he terms as "the ethical state," characterized by activity, creation, and movement, objectifying the energies of its members. Thus struggle, conflict, and opposition of the fascist state are more significant for liberty than are the static principles and inactive parliament of the democratic state. It emphasizes to the citizen his duty rather than his right and urges him to conquer himself and seek present interest in future personal benefit in his thought of the country to which he owes

every sacrifice and from which he may expect every reward. This theory is the basis of Gentile's educational system and the concepts of nationalism and freedom the formative principles. Thus the aim of the Italian school of today is "to mould and fashion souls, to prepare men for the unforeseen ways of life."²³ Gentile says, "Man is unworthy of education unless he is master of himself, capable of initiating his own acts, responsible for his own acts, able to discern and assimilate ideas, . . . so that whatever he says, thinks, or does, really comes from him. . . . The teacher must transfuse into the pupils something of himself, and out of his own spiritual substance create elements of the pupils' character, mind, and will."²⁴

The Gentile educational reforms may be summarized as follows: education above the elementary school for those of merit only; state examinations for both government and private schools; private schools subject to state supervision (in Germany private schools have been abolished); government textbooks prepared; admission to government secondary schools by examination; elementary education for broad popular education and as preparation for secondary work; establishment of certain types of secondary vocational and technical schools to meet needs; co-ordination of the university; revision of the elementary and secondary curricula; establishment of government youth organizations to conduct extra-curricular activities; and the establishment of an Italian academy. Benedetto Croce estimates Gentile's services to education when he says, "Indeed, we owe it to Gentile that Italian pedagogy has attained in the present day a simplicity and depth of concepts unknown elsewhere. In Italy not education alone, but the practice of it and its political aspects have been thoroughly recast and amply developed."

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

Since the Gentile reforms certain changes must be noted such as the preparation of an elementary text to educate the adolescent in the new atmosphere created by fascism; increase in religious instruction (of the political type); increase in instruction in "hygiene"; co-ordination and strengthening of vocational education; reorganization of the classical and scientific lyceums and government universities and higher institutions of learning; assignment of specific aims to the scientific laboratories connected with the universities; permanent establishment of many new

special subjects; encouragement of archeology; and increased teachers' pensions. From the primary grades through the university the lesson taught is the necessity of unquestioning loyalty and devotion to country and the support of those political concepts to enhance the prestige of the State abroad and its internal well-being. The Gentile reforms are "the most fascist of all fascist reforms."

Fascist education is a challenge to the educational programs of the liberal and democratic states. The choice today lies between a form of society based on "fear, hatred, intolerance, coercion, and regimentation, and one which pins its faith on the development of independence, tolerance, and freedom of thought and expression."²⁵ Which shall it be?

¹ B. Mussolini, "Meaning of Fascism," *Encyclopaedia Italiana*, XIV (1932), 847-851.

² I. L. Kandel, "Education in Nazi Germany," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences*, CLXXXII (November, 1935), 154.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 155.

⁴ W. Durant, "Europe—War or Peace?" *World Affairs Pamphlet No. 7* (Foreign Policy Association and World Peace Foundation, 1935).

⁵ H. R. Marraro, *New Education in Italy* (New York: S. F. Vanni, Inc. 1936), p. 4.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

⁷ I. L. Kandel, "Education in Nazi Germany," *Annals*, CLXXXII (November, 1935), 156.

⁸ C. H. Abad, "Fascist Education in Italy," *Current History*, XXXVI (July, 1932), 433-437.

⁹ C. A. Beard, "Education Under the Nazis," *Foreign Affairs*, XIV (April, 1936), 445.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 452.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 439.

¹² Editorial, "The National Socialist Schools of Germany," *School and Society*, XLV (January, 1937), 145.

¹³ M. B. Schnapper, "Scientific Education Under The Swastika," *School and Society*, XLV (January, 1937), 162.

¹⁴ C. A. Beard, "Education Under the Nazis," *Foreign Affairs*, XIV (April, 1936), 448.

¹⁵ H. Nabholz, "Selectivity in Germany Secondary Schools," *School and Society*, XLII (July, 1935), 68.

¹⁶ Editorial, "Tyro Fuehrers," *Literary Digest*, CXXI (May, 1936), 16.

¹⁷ C. A. Beard, "Education Under the Nazis," *Foreign Affairs*, XIV (April, 1936), 16.

¹⁸ There is controversy in the press over this papal settlement now.

¹⁹ H. Nabholz, "Elimination of Private Preparatory Schools In Germany," *School and Society*, XLIV (September, 1936), 346.

²⁰ H. R. Marraro, *New Education in Italy* (New York: S. F. Vanni, Inc. 1936), p. 304.

²¹ S. W. Downs, "Recent Changes in German Education," *School and Society*, XLIII (January, 1936), 96.

²² H. R. Marraro, *New Education in Italy* (New York: S. F. Vanni Inc. 1936), p. 16.

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 24.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 16.

²⁵ I. L. Kandel, "Education in Nazi Germany," *Annals*, CLXXXII (November, 1935), 163.

The Use of the Radio in the Secondary School

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The effective school today must make use of every possible means of putting boys and girls into touch with the world in which they live—a world that is "so full of a number of things." They should become acquainted with every plan contributing to worthy use of leisure because leisure time is increasing. Economic conditions in recent years have forced people to find their recreation in the home. Boys and girls have turned to the radio for entertainment. The school has a splendid opportunity to direct them to a worthy use of leisure that will broaden their horizon. Through educating boys and girls to be discriminating in their choice of radio programs, the school can eventually educate the adults of the family.

The radio has become a definite and growing interference in the opportunity for home study. This is especially true in homes where the families are unable to provide a room for preparation of lessons. Since the family (and often the neighbors) gather about the radio it would seem to be the duty of the school to acquaint the pupils, and through them, the adults of the community, with the best that radio has to offer. There are those who think that there should be no home-assignments. They hold that the extra-curricular activities of the child, and more especially, those activities into which he enters at home, should grow out of the activities of the school, and that a pupil should choose to do outside of school things for which he has received a background in the school. Certainly the school should gradually influence the pupil to listen to the better programs "on the air." The cultured teacher will mention programs of good music, book reviews, and even of spiritual leaders of national prominence who have a message for people seeking insight into conditions in this troubled world. For every high school subject programs can be found which illuminate class discussions. The social studies are particularly fortunate in the wealth of material that is offered to informed students. This includes the better commentators, the forums, the Town Meeting of the Air, the University of Chicago Round Table, broadcasts of events of national importance such as the opening of Congress, the inauguration of the President, political campaign speeches, national conventions, speeches of prominent national leaders, and the famous Fireside Chats.

There seem to be five types of activity in connection with the use of the radio in school:

- 1) Programs for which advance preparation can be made.
- 2) Programs for which no advance preparation can be made.
- 3) Programs which occur outside of school hours, but are reported in class regularly.
- 4) Creative programs presented as "broadcasts."
- 5) Programs presenting school officials and pupils to the public.

Examples of the first type would be advance preparation for intelligent listening to a program of the School of the Air, or to a debate on socialized medicine from the Town Meeting of the Air. Examples of the second type for which no specific preparation can be made are such programs as the opening of Congress, a National Convention, etc. Some general preparation can be made for such events. However, there is not as much factual preparation possible as in the first type. The third type of program includes the better commentators, Town Meeting of the Air, the Round Table, and similar offerings. It is through this type of program that the adults of the community may be aided indirectly by the school. Pupils often have to overcome the competition offered by a crooner or a comedy team before they can secure the use of the family radio. Once the family gets started in listening to the better programs, the habit becomes as fixed as formerly was the case with the less valuable program. It has been observed that an eleventh grade pupil who "reforms the family" and continues the idea to tune in the good programs while taking twelfth grade electives in social studies has established a "mental set" which will encourage him in a very wise use of leisure. The teacher who stresses the opportunity that the radio offers to the average person to mingle with the prominent and the famous people of two continents, to listen to all sides of the issues of the day, and to observe that people may differ in opinions and yet conduct themselves with dignity and poise, has done the pupil a great service. There is an added bond between the teacher and pupil when the latter knows that the teacher is listening

to the same program in his home, and that he may have points which were not clear explained to him the next day in school. A school Town Meeting may be organized to meet in a class or club period on the day following the national broadcast to report the speeches for those who were unable to listen and to carry on the discussion. (Such a club is in existence at John C. Fremont High School at Los Angeles.) Another valuable outgrowth of listening to programs that offer panel discussions has been the ideas gained both as to facts and procedures for similar activities in school. Still another has been the application of these ideas to activities in young people's groups at church and elsewhere.

It is a splendid sight to see a roomful of boys and girls listening to an important broadcast. A pupil of superior ability at the blackboard occasionally writes a key-word to help the less gifted classmates, or writes a figure which "stumps" a less mathematically-inclined neighbor, or points out a location on the map. This is indeed a socialized lesson. The auditing is followed up with a discussion based on notes taken. Vague impressions are clarified. Best of all, there is an impetus for further investigation and reports by some of the group.

The fourth type of activity which has developed in connection with the radio is the creative expression

which imitates the form of the radio broadcast. It is especially popular in fusion classes. The subject-matter is drawn from the social studies; the creative phase grows out of the English course. It is truly socialized because it permits expression by all types of pupils. The creation of the script calls for activity on the part of the thorough student, the humorist, the embryonic dramatist, the debater. The public-speaking star and the musician in the group cooperate in putting the program on the air. A visit to the station may be necessary to secure the correct atmosphere, unless some class member can report on an earlier experience. Occasionally a member of the class engaged in such an activity has had actual experience in a broadcasting station and can share first-hand knowledge of conditions. There is real impetus to creative expression when boys and girls feel they are doing something which is being done in the world outside of the classroom.

Here and there, schools have engaged in a fifth activity. They have put on programs in which talented pupils have interpreted the school to the public. New school buildings also are frequently equipped with systems which permit principals and other officials to speak directly to each classroom. It remains to be seen what television will mean to the school of the future.

News and Comment

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THE 6-4-4 PLAN IN PASADENA

A landmark in the history of secondary education was set up when the high school reached down into the grammar school, abstracted the two upper grades, and gave the educational world the 6-3-3 organization. Then, when the junior college arose, it seemed as if the college in turn was reaching down into the high school to take its two upper grades. But now it appears that the secondary school is really reaching up and adding to itself the first two college years, thus creating the 6-4-4 organization. An eight-year secondary school bears resemblances in many ways to the European system.

The establishment of the 6-4-4 plan in the public schools of Pasadena, California, is an educational event of great importance. Superintendent Sexson describes how the city abandoned the traditional high school entirely. His account, "A New Type of

Secondary School," appearing in the *Bulletin* of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the N.E.A. for February, 1938, deserves careful consideration from school men. He points out several inadequacies of the traditional four-year high school and states the advantages of the eight-year (4-4) secondary school. Pasadena's experience with the new organization shows that it is far superior to the old set up in solving educational problems of youth. Under the new organization, many problems heretofore unyielding turn out to be less stubborn.

A NEW FEATURE OF THE N.E.A. "JOURNAL"

In the February issue of the *Journal* of the National Education Association appears a new page entitled, "For Secondary School Workers." Although greatly condensed in order to fit a single page, "For Secondary School Workers" presents a panorama of

major events occurring in all phases of secondary education today. It is planned to make this a regular monthly page.

This issue of the *Journal* also contains a three-page summary of Stuart Chase's article on conservation which appeared in the *Survey Graphic* for last December (see THE SOCIAL STUDIES for February, this department, pp. 85-86), and Senator Wagner's address in the United States Senate a year ago in tribute to Susan B. Anthony. Senator Wagner's remarks will be useful to high-school students of American history.

"SCHOOL LIFE"

The February number of *School Life* will be welcomed by all teachers. The issue is a most unusual pictorial presentation of the work of the Federal Office of Education. What is that office? How does it work? What services does it render to American education? What are some of the recent developments in the office and what additional services can it give? As treated, these subjects form a picture of federal educational activities which schools will gladly add to their permanent collection of educational material.

ADULT EDUCATION

The growth of adult education has reached the proportions of a movement. It is penetrating all parts of the nation, developing a literature, creating techniques and procedures, attracting a growing company of devotees, and requiring schools of education to train teachers or leaders for the work. Here are a few samples of activities in adult education in different sections of the nation.

The American Association for Adult Education (1315 Cherry Street, Philadelphia) is now planning for its thirteenth annual meeting on May 16-18, at Asbury Park, New Jersey. The organ of the association, the *Journal of Adult Education*, is now almost ten years old. In Utah, \$15,000 has been appropriated for adult education. Minnesota is studying its possibilities, and Ohio is experimenting with it. Commissioner Studebaker, one of the foremost national leaders of the movement, particularly in connection with adult forums reports that the Federal Office of Education has sponsored more than 10,000 forum discussions attended by nearly a million people and has conducted many radio programs and engaged in other activities in the field. The New York University, Division of General Education is now conducting a program of about seventy courses for adults, among them being a public service program, a course on the relation of government to business, and a forum on public labor policies in which Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins and Senator Robert F. Wagner will take part. In Pennsylvania the monthly bulletin of the Department of Public In-

struction, *Public Education*, reports in the February number that the State Council of Education recently approved a new curriculum in adult education to be a part of the work in teacher training in the State Teachers College at Shippensburg, Pa. With normal colleges and universities giving professional preparation for the work, adult education as a movement has survived the dangers of infancy and become an established feature of American education.

Even friendly critics have appeared. John W. Herring, a member of the University of the State of New York recently made a very useful study of the question, "Is a Nationwide Forum Movement Possible?" He discussed the reach of the present movement, its limits along present lines, and how it must proceed if its reach is to become truly national. Mr. Herring's discussion appeared in the issue of *School and Society* for February 5. It is a realistic study of the question and will be found helpful by all who are interested in adult education, and particularly by those who themselves conduct forums.

EDUCATION AS LIVING FOR BETTER LIVING

For a long time Professor W. H. Kilpatrick has been reformulating his philosophy of education, the fruit of more than a generation of teaching and thinking. In *Educational Method* for January he presents that philosophy in a copyrighted article, "Education as Living for Better Living." His thought, although in harmony with the ideas of John Dewey, is no less epoch-making in its connotations today than were Dewey's ideas a generation ago. Few schools have dared as yet to experiment with many of the procedures and activities suggested by the far-reaching implications of the educational philosophy of these leaders.

SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITIES

The relation of school and community is the subject of the entire issue of *Progressive Education* for February. Among the dozen topics discussed are, "What Is a Community," "Taking Dewey Seriously," "Communities Develop Programs to Meet Local Needs," "Neighborhood Growth through the School," and "Cultural Resources in Rural America."

TEACHING SOCIAL ATTITUDES

President Roscoe Pulliam of Southern Illinois State Normal University asks, "How Far Shall the School Go in Teaching Social Attitudes?" Teachers of the social studies will find his remarks in *Educational Administration and Supervision* for December, 1937, to be very pertinent. To teach bare facts, he says, is likely to be very misleading and partisan, unless such teaching is accompanied by competent interpretation. At the same time, of course, it is dangerous to ignore the teaching of facts in the life of our time which

have vital significance for our society. To ignore those facts in the school is "deliberately to misdirect and sterilize intelligence." When children are being taught to give their "major concern to the love affairs of Vergil or the mouth parts of squash bugs, we must not be surprised when the public business goes by sheer default to ex-bartenders and correspondence school lawyers. It was because the German scholars were lost in the niceties of abstruse scholarship that the task of giving defeated and humiliated Germany a new faith to live by fell to an ignorant, vindictively bigoted house painter." President Pulliam makes a powerful plea for schools to play a leading part in teaching the living to recognize, appreciate, and apply those general principles and values which can best serve to meet the concrete issues and problems of today and tomorrow.

DE SOTO QUADRICENTENNIAL

In May, 1939, De Soto landed in Florida. To commemorate that event President Roosevelt has appointed The United States De Soto Exposition Commission, with Dr. John R. Swanton as chairman. Plans are being made for a celebration in Tampa next year.

In *The Florida Historical Quarterly* for January, 1938, Dr. Swanton presents the evidence to prove that Tampa was "The Landing Place of De Soto." This issue of the *Quarterly* is the "Hernando De Soto Number" and it contains much material which will appeal to high-school students of American history. The *Quarterly* is published in the Rose Building, Tallahassee.

ONE HUNDRED YEARS AGO

In the *Palimpsest*, the monthly magazine of the State Historical Society of Iowa (Iowa City), there is an account in the January number of "The National Scene in 1838," by Harrison John Thornton. His survey will be useful in history classes. It covers the size of the nation, the movements of population, the growth of domestic commerce and of transportation facilities, the expansion of foreign trade, the aftermath of the panic of 1837, foreign relations, the growing opposition to slavery, the rise of the democratic system of education, and the development in literature and other arts. "By 1838, American society was becoming impressed with the magnificence of its heritage and the splendid prospect of the future. A tide of elation was rising in the national heart. Soon would be heard the surging chant of 'manifest destiny.'"

ROOSEVELT'S PLACE IN HISTORY

If President Roosevelt involves us in war, says Charles A. Beard in his discussion of "Roosevelt's

Place in History" in the February issue of *Events*, he is likely to "find himself on the way to a third-rate place in history with Wilson rather than to immortality with Washington and Jefferson," who kept us out of war.

Dr. Beard acknowledges the difficulty of judging the place of the living in history. But even the place of those long dead is not fixed, for each generation re-writes history in its own perspective "and therefore no final word about any man can be said." Biography can never give the ultimate truth about any man. "It is more nearly a form of village gossip, sublimated, elevated, and transfigured. Like gossip, it is amusing, diverting, moving, tragic, comic, or grandiose, according to the social setting, talents, and animus of the biographer. And, as prevailing interests, conflicts, and ideas change, the images of distinguished historic characters, whether ancient or recent, will be altered, retouched, or perhaps broken for a time."

President Roosevelt, in the opinion of Dr. Beard, is by experience and ideas separated from the active interests which are clashing in the modern world. He is not a landed gentleman strictly speaking, nor is he a farmer or a business man or a labor leader. But he does seem to combine "some of the landed gentleman's stubbornness with the affability of the forum and jocosity of the cocktail party." His interests are numerous and wide, and his actions, not unusually, are opportunistic.

The President apparently accepts the traditional view of business: competition, laissez faire, small business, fair profits. He believes that, with the correction of its faults, "the American system of economy may function well enough to escape an alarming disaster, at least for many years." One of these faults is the failure to put labor in a position to bargain adequately for its share of the returns. Like organized labor, the President accepts the capitalistic system of production.

In our foreign relations Mr. Roosevelt is anxious to avoid war whose shadow seems to deepen day by day. But Dr. Beard is doubtful whether the President "would struggle in the last ditch to keep the country out of foreign wars." For, like Wilson, he feels the moral obligation to tackle international problems "and imagines himself able to know the good in each and every case." This accounts for the Neutrality Act of 1937 which has so greatly extended the power of the chief executive over our foreign affairs. Yet, in a war, Dr. Beard feels sure that whether we win or lose we would be euchred at the peace conference. Hence Dr. Beard's judgment which was voiced in our opening paragraph.

Among Presidents, Mr. Roosevelt has made one unique contribution: "He has discussed in his messages and addresses more fundamental problems of

American life and society than all the other Presidents combined." Problems and evils which "men in high places had hitherto blandly ignored" he has laid before the country in striking fashion and with "a rare power of expression that [promises] to place some of his addresses among the very greatest state papers of this country and all time." Not excluding Lincoln, Mr. Roosevelt has penetrated more deeply into both the tragedy and the aspiration of American life: "Whatever else may happen, it seems safe to say that President Roosevelt has made a more profound impression upon the political, social, and economic thought of America than any or all of his predecessors."

FASCISM IN LATIN AMERICA

Despite newspaper accounts and the ceaseless flow of fascist broadcasts from Europe to Latin America, Professor J. Fred Rippy feels that fascist power has only a remote chance to invade the republics lying south of us. Writing in *Events* for February, on the subject, "Why Worry about Latin America," Dr. Rippy states that the really all-powerful influences there are the forces which have been at work since colonial times: geographic, racial, patriotic, etc. Dictators, of course, have been common there since 1810. Latin-American ideals however, are not those of totalitarian Central Europe, but are those of France, England, and the United States. The Latin American brand of dictatorship has not been and is not likely to become truly fascist.

BUSINESS AND GOVERNMENT

Under this title *Fortune* launched in February a series of articles studying the relations of business and government. First in the series were three articles, "The New Deal: Second Time Round" (the first appraisal of the New Deal appeared in *Fortune* for December 1933), "Washington and Power," and "Douglas Over the Stock Exchange." In March the subject of monopoly was examined, and in later issues other aspects of the business-government relationship will be taken up.

The editors of *Fortune* believe that government and business do not understand each other. It is these misunderstandings which they propose to explore in the hope that a solution for the conflicts and counter-claims may emerge. As they see it, the New Deal was an effort to cure the ills of our capitalistic system. The New Deal philosophy declared that the capitalistic system is controlled by the operation of economic law and the enlightened self-interest of the capitalists. However, modern industrial conditions prevent the automatic operation of these forces. Industrial leaders failed to see that not only must goods be produced but also the necessary pur-

chasing power with which to buy them. Failing to see this necessity, they diminished the nation's power to purchase by drawing off more and more profits to be applied to further production in uneconomic plants. The farmer, similarly, in his pressing need for cash, has tried to maintain a high level of production. In other words, the automatic governor on the economic engine did not work. The New Dealers have tried to make capitalism work. The fight has been over the means by which to do it, and how to do it from the inside and not by compulsion from without. It seemed essential to allay the destructive forces of competition by getting concerted action to raise prices and wages and to increase the purchasing power of the nation. "For the first time in the history of this country the police power of the federal government was turned against the marginal competitors who chisel down the prices of potential monopolists instead of being turned against the potential monopolists in aid of the marginal competitors." That is a basic fact in New Deal policy. But apparently business, even with government advice and direction, has been unable to pull itself out of the slough. Perhaps, *Fortune* suggests, the new policy will be "the old Progressive policy of attempting to make capitalism work by government enforcement of competition from without the system." There will be substituted for the battle-cry of purchasing power the battle-cry of monopoly.

LAND OF PLENTY

Among the many worth-while articles appearing in the magazines each month there is always one that makes a far deeper impression than the others. Such an article is that on "Land of Plenty" in *Current History* for February, written by Rexford G. Tugwell. Having the general citizen in mind, Dr. Tugwell nevertheless holds the attention of students of social problems. His approach to the modern problem of food production is made by way of an interesting interpretation of the methods and social significance of food-getting in the early times. Although the problem of the food supply has been transformed by the Industrial Revolution, farmers and others in our day continue to think of it in the old terms. Dr. Tugwell states the problem, shows what is involved in transforming farming from a way of living to a business, points out some of the changes required in supplying a nation of city-dwellers not only with sufficient food but with the most healthful kinds for the masses of population that now follow sedentary occupations, and enumerates problems involved, domestic and foreign, political, economic, and social. He concludes with an explanation of the farm problem as a great social problem facing us and succeeding generations.

THE SURVIVAL OF DEMOCRACY

John Paul Williams, in *School and Society* for February 5, asks the question, "What Can the Teacher Do to Increase American Democracy's Chances of Survival?" Like others, Mr. Williams feels that democracy is endangered. He agrees with James Truslow Adams that "Far down the path which America is now treading . . . in the shadow of the future, but all too clearly visible to the historian, stands, biding his time, the sinister figure of the man on horseback, the dictator." Five lines of action can be adopted, in his opinion, which will greatly increase the chances of democracy's survival. These five, which he discusses at some length, are: (1) Implant in the minds of future voters the conviction that democracy is in danger. (2) Teach them the limitations as well as the strengths of democracy. (3) Make them understand "that there is a very real sense in which John Citizen is the governmental expert." (4) Give them the very necessary education in how to make choices, practice in the art of making wise judgments. (5) "As individuals and as a profession we teachers must be ever alert to defend academic freedom and civil liberties wherever they are threatened."

He declares in conclusion that freedom of speech, of press, and of assembly are infinitely more precious than bodily health, comforts, and economic security which distinguish our day from that of our forefathers on the frontier. Only yesterday did a portion of mankind secure personal liberties and establish boundaries to secure them against violation by other men. Now those defenses, hardly made secure, seem about to be breached by men on horseback. Is this the tragedy foreshadowed in our time?

DEPRESSION AND SECURITY

The New Republic for February 2 carried a special seventeen-page supplement on "The Depression." A large group of economic authorities present their views on what has happened, whose fault it is, how it may be explained, what the government can do about it, and how long it is likely to last.

In the regular issue of the same date, Earl Browder and Charles A. Beard debate the subject of "Collective Security." Mr. Browder favors the President's declared policy of cooperating with other nations, notably Britain, France, and Russia to stop "the remaining 10 per cent who are threatening a breakdown of all international order and law." Dr. Beard favors isolation. He doubts that it is likely that we can now insure peace by collective action. The world picture seems much less simple to Dr. Beard than to Mr. Browder, and he feels less sure of our ability to achieve the objective of collective security: "If we cannot solve even the problem of putting

10,000,000 of our own citizens to work on the lavish resources right at hand, or have collective security at home, how can we have the effrontery to assume that we can solve the problem of Asia and Europe, encrusted in the blood-rust of fifty centuries?"

HOUSING IN NEW ENGLAND

In *Consumers' Guide* for January 17 there is a study of the cost of rent for typical families in the villages and cities of New England, 1935-1936. Government workers have visited 280,000 families in all parts of the country, to make a study of the housing situation. In this issue rents and incomes for the New England section are presented. The results of the survey in other parts of the country will be reported later. Teachers interested in this material should write to the Editor, *Consumers' Guide*, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

FILMS

Paramount Pictures have produced two new shorts on historical subjects. The first is *Men and Oil*, a two-reel condensation of *High, Wide and Handsome*, showing the early development of the oil industry in this country. The second is the one-reel film, *Wheels of Empire*. It is based upon *Wells Fargo* and gives the story of transportation and communication in the United States. Both films are 16 mm., with sound. Their distributor is Films, Inc., 330 W. 42nd Street, New York, 64 E. Lake Street, Chicago, or 925 N.W. 19th Street, Portland, Ore.

MAPS OF THE RATIFICATION PERIOD

The United States Constitution Sesquicentennial Commission has begun publishing a series of facsimile maps showing the states at the time of the ratification of the Constitution, all reproduced from originals in the Library of Congress. Several of the maps have already appeared, including those of Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Georgia, and Connecticut. Others in the series will show the other original states between New Hampshire and Georgia. There will also be separate maps of Maine, Kentucky, and Tennessee, as well as two maps of the United States at the same period. Each of eighteen maps is being published in an edition of 5000 copies. Anyone desiring copies may obtain them by writing to the United States Constitution Sesquicentennial Commission, Hon. Sol Bloom, Director General, Old House Office Building, Washington, D.C. The maps cost 10 cents each and the series of eighteen when completed may be obtained for \$1.50. Persons desiring duplicate copies of a given map may secure them in lots of eighteen at the same wholesale price. The maps are of historic importance and are skilfully reproduced.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edward Gibbon, 1737-1794. By D. M. Low. New York: Random House, 1937. Pp. xiv, 370. Illustrated. \$3.50.

The past few years have witnessed the writing of many biographies. Perhaps few of them enjoy a subject so truly deserving careful study as the book under review; few of them pursue it with such praiseworthy and accurate scholarship. Not merely the well-known authorities, but also materials in the British Museum, the Cantonal Library in Lausanne, the private collection of M. William de Charrière de Sévery, and other little-known repositories have been consulted.

Nobody is qualified to take the judgment seat and determine who has been the greatest of historians. But none can deny to Edward Gibbon the position of being among the very greatest scholars of all time. The vast scope and profound significance of his work entitle it to the thoughtful consideration of every student of history and political economy, even as its masterful grasp of language will ever assure it a high rank among the classics of English literature.

Mr. Low's biography does justice to its subject. One follows the historian of Rome from the cradle to the grave through a life of more even tenor than many, more interesting than most. It is to the author's credit that no attempt is made to give a lengthy and technical study of *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*—such a work should be reserved for a monograph written for specialists, not—as this book—for the average reader. This does not imply that no attention has been paid to Gibbon's scholarship. On the contrary, it is a factor of which the reader is always conscious. The history of the conception and authorship of *The Decline and Fall* is given in an excellent manner. One might wish for a more full account of the controversy raised by the famous fifteenth and sixteenth chapters, or for a more satisfactory explanation of the reasons why Gibbon slighted the Byzantine Empire as compared with his exhaustive treatment of the Western Caesars (pp. 322-323).

However, these criticisms need not be pressed too hard, as the function of biography is to tell the story of a man's life. This is done well by the book under review. Gibbon's activities in general—his connection with the militia, his political and social life in England and at Lausanne—are the principal theme against which his scholarship appears in fair proportion. Necessarily much is said of his social life. Gibbon was nothing if not sociable. He was always a gentleman—in the formal, eighteenth century sense of the word—from the early days when, being sent

abroad by his father, he demanded an allowance sufficient to keep a "man," to the closing years of his life when he was the recognized leader of the English colony at Lausanne.

Gibbon never married—there had been a time when he had hoped to—but his relations with women were always cordial. His own step-mother, Suzanne Curchod, Lady Sheffield, and Mme. de Sévery had important parts in his life. Different as the men were, there seems to be a resemblance between Gibbon and Henry Adams in this respect—both thrived on social life and both were truly appreciative of the society of women.

The volume leaves one with a deeper understanding of the eighteenth century, and of Gibbon's part in the life of his time. Georges Deyverdun and Lord Sheffield—the two most intimate friends he ever had—Samuel Johnson and James Boswell, Edmund Burke and Charles James Fox, Joshua Reynolds and Joseph Banks are among the characters that enliven its pages. It is excellently written and thoroughly annotated. No formal bibliography is given, but the most important sources are cited in the preface. Three appendices and an index conclude a worthy contribution to modern biographical literature.

ALBAN W. HOOPES

American Philosophical Society
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Collectivism A False Utopia. By William Henry Chamberlain. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. 265. \$2.00.

Mr. Chamberlain, who was for twelve years the Moscow correspondent of *The Christian Science Monitor*, will probably not represent his paper in Soviet Russia again for many years to come. The same is true, though to a lesser extent, of Germany and Italy.

The volume, which constitutes a smashing indictment of collectivism, does not by any means add anything new to our stock of knowledge; what it says has been told many times before. Mr. Chamberlain traces the challenge to liberty which the post-war years have witnessed. He discusses communism and fascism from the point of view of the destruction of what we know as civil liberties. Russia, he finds, is the bloodiest and most barbaric of the dictatorships, and is not, by any stretch of the imagination, the new democracy which its partisans have called it. His descriptions of conditions in the fascist countries are likewise uncomplimentary; yet they very often take the form, "Germany is bad, but look at Russia."

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Although the entire book is pervaded with the idea, it is particularly in his chapter on "The New Technique of Tyranny" that Mr. Chamberlain points out his belief in the essential similarities of the communist and fascist states; in it he analyzes what the publisher's "blurb" aptly calls the "many similarities in emotional psychology and administrative practice" between Russia on the one hand and Germany and Italy on the other. Mr. Chamberlain finds that the tyranny of the modern dictatorship is "based first of all on a recognition of the tremendous possibilities of state-monopolized propaganda in an age when most people go to school, read newspapers, listen to radio broadcasts, and attend the movies. . . . What the post-war dictatorship does is to harness the most modern devices of publicity to its propaganda chariot."

Collectivism, Mr. Chamberlain asserts, is written large in the banners of both the fascist and the communist systems. Advocates of both, "however much they may disagree on other points, are in substantial agreement on the proposition that liberalism, democracy, individualism are outworn and outmoded, that the salvation of humanity depends on the adoption of their particular brand of collectivist society."

The latter, the author points out, are the alternatives which advocates of the systems claim to be fac-

ing mankind today. But, he says, "fortunately there is a more real alternative to barbarism than communism. This alternative is liberty. Liberty or barbarism: this is indeed the choice before the civilization of the twentieth century."

Mr. Chamberlain's declaration of faith makes it evident that his volume is not only an attempt to prove collectivism a false utopia, but also a demonstration of the pragmatic value of liberty, "an effort to show . . . that free institutions possess a pragmatic value far outweighing the largely illusory advantages of the short-cut methods of dictatorship."

WILLIAM DIAMOND

Johns Hopkins University
 Baltimore, Maryland

Great Leveler. The Life of Thaddeus Stevens. By Thomas Frederick Woodley. New York: Stackpole Sons, 1937. Pp. 474. \$3.50.

In 1934 Mr. Woodley published a biography of Thaddeus Stevens that was generally well received. Now he has had an opportunity not usually vouchsafed to authors of re-publishing his book. The whole book which was very large has been gone over, condensed and somewhat re-written. The book has been reduced from 664 pages. The style has been improved. However, there are a very great number of

pages on which there has been little change. Some modifications of interpretation have been made and a better portrait has resulted. The complexities of Stevens' character are more vividly set forth. Certain sweeping claims as to Stevens' contribution to history have been eliminated. The quality of ardent defense which somewhat marred the original work has been toned down. All told, the book has been made a better and more convincing biography.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

James Madison: Builder. By Abbot Emerson Smith. New York: Wilson-Erickson, Inc., 1937. Distributed by Elliot Publishing Company, 33 West 42nd Street, New York. Pp. vii, 356. Illustrated.

It is certainly fitting that while we are commemorating the anniversary of the making and ratification of the Constitution, we should study again the men who played a part in the events which we are celebrating. It is also necessary to make accurate and well written history accessible to a public which too often reads pseudo-history only, and to students who too often limit themselves to reading texts. Professor Smith attempts to meet these demands. He presents a carefully written account of James Madison's political activities from the earliest beginnings in Virginia until his retirement from the Presidency.

The author makes no pretense to an exhaustive analysis of new and extensive sources, but has used carefully the available material. Though it is impossible in a brief review to call attention to all of his conclusions, some should be mentioned. Professor Smith brings out the fact that Madison opposed some of the principal compromises which made the Constitution possible; that his clearly expressed views of the government under the Constitution forced him to oppose Hamilton's policies; that his interpretation of the Virginia resolution was not the same as that of the South Carolina legislature several decades later; that as Secretary of State he coöperated loyally in carrying out Jefferson's policies; that the period of the Presidency was unusually trying since, "unfortunately it required more than a cockade to make Madison a heroic figure, and time was to show that something more than good intentions were necessary in a commander-in-chief." Fortunately the close of the war before the end of the second term made it possible for him to retire with considerable popularity. His interest in politics never waned, and he spent his declining years as adviser to younger men.

Parts of the book can be used for reference purposes in secondary schools. The careful analysis, the judicious summaries, the scholarly but not too heavy

approach, the readable style, and the important period under discussion make this study a real contribution to our historical literature.

WALTER H. MOHR

George School
Newtown, Pennsylvania

The Writings and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell: With an Introduction, Notes and a Sketch of his Life. By Wilbur Cortez Abbott. Volume I. 1599-1649. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1937. Pp. xx, 759. \$5.00.

In an introduction which disarms the critic, Professor Abbott frankly acknowledges the difficulties of the task which he has undertaken. The present work will, he realizes, inevitably invite comparison with Carlyle's classic *Letters and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell*, the work of a cocksure genius whose "dogmatic charm" could scarcely be eclipsed by a scholarly historian of the twentieth century, but which nevertheless demands amplification and emendation. Carlyle's original collection included some two hundred and fifty documents, to which he later added, as an appendix, seventy-five more. Early in the present century Mrs. Lomas collected and published another one hundred and eighty-five, but again as a supplement. Professor Abbott now uses all these documents, save for a few which have proven spurious, and adds some seven hundred and fifty, one fifth of which have never before been printed in any form. All are arranged in chronological order, and where documents are known to have existed but have been lost or are for some reason unavailable they are mentioned, and wherever possible the nature of their contents is indicated. The editor states, with modest pride, that his collection is "only as nearly complete and without errors as time and patience can contrive."

But this is a work of authorship as well as of editing. So full is the narrative with which the documents are introduced that at times, particularly in the earlier years when they are not so numerous, these latter seem to serve as illustrations for the text. In short, we have here a biography of imposing proportions, ably and vividly written notwithstanding the strictly chronological treatment made necessary by the plan of organization.

The present volume covers the first half century of Cromwell's life, leaving for the three which are yet to appear the nine far more richly documented years of the Commonwealth and Protectorate. The family background and early life of the East Anglican squire and his activities as a member of Charles I's last three parliaments fill the first quarter of the volume, the greater part being devoted to the Civil War and the emergence of Cromwell as the dominating figure of his time. This is a splendid treatment of an epic theme, and the remaining volumes,

which are promised for the near future, will complete a work which may well be deemed definitive.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Business in the Middle Ages. By Summerfield Baldwin. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1937. Pp. xi, 106. \$1.00.

This attractive and readable little volume is the latest of the *Berkshire Studies in European History*. Following the plan adopted for the twenty-one preceding volumes of this series, it attempts to meet the need of the teacher for "adequate reading for his classes which is neither too specialized and technical nor too elementary." Though short, this book is fairly comprehensive, showing clearly the main principles behind medieval industries of farming, fishing, mining, spinning, weaving, wool, silk, and others. It outlines the growth of towns, guilds, presents medieval theories of business and gives a clear, informing treatment of the medieval Jewish merchant and trader. Divided into three sections (Getting a Living, Increasing Production, Exchanging Surpluses), the book is designed as one week's outside reading. It makes no pretension to original scholarship, but proposes only to assimilate from divers scattered materials, in somewhat the fashion of a textbook, the best and the latest that has been written upon the subject.

OSCAR G. DARLINGTON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

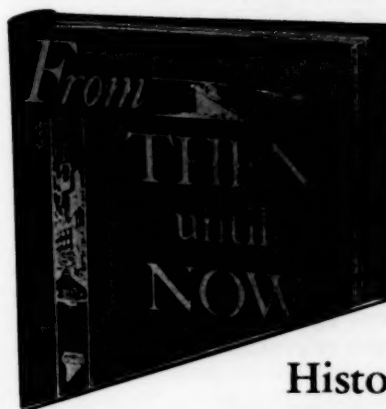
TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Government in Action: A Study of Problems in American Democracy. By Robert E. Keohane, Mary P. Keohane, and Joseph D. McGoldrick. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. Pp. 845. \$1.84.

The objective of the authors of this textbook was to assist students in understanding "the principles and problems of good government." They hoped to write a teachable and practical textbook. To do this they have written for the average senior high school student, yet also giving opportunities for the exceptionally brilliant by means of readings and activities offered at the close of each unit or chapter. Likewise the slow student has been provided for by so planning the text that it alone will suffice for him.

Government in Action is primarily a textbook for government classes; however it could possibly be used for a limited course in Problems in Democracy. It is so integrated with social and economic topics as to make this possible.

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The authors have used numerous illustrations, charts, graphs, and diagrams in order to promote an understanding of the field of government, rather than a conglomerate mass of routine material to be memorized. The book is written from the functional viewpoint so that the student may understand government in reality more than in theory. It treats first the study of government from the constitutional viewpoint and then the practical. The very choice of unit or chapter titles and paragraph questions are so arranged—for instance, the topic of "local government" is treated as "how political parties work." The pictures, charts, graphs, etc., supplementing the narrative will add to the scheme for "reality." In addition the discussion is exemplified by reference to present day problems and events.

This reviewer was impressed with two unique features: the classroom library aids suggested at the very beginning of the book and the broadening of the text to include summary views of current European governments. Surely American government is affected by other governments today, yet many textbook writers fail to include any explanation or comparison in this field. This factor is quite commendable in the book.

This is a textbook that should make government fascinating for study and teaching.

HERMAN H. LAWRENCE

Senior High School
Middletown, Ohio

Economics: An Introduction to Fundamental Problems. By A. H. Smith. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938. Revised Edition. Pp. 544. Illustrated. \$1.68.

Economic texts, as a rule, are ponderous, dry and dull. Facts are often included in such texts necessarily of chronological importance, further taxing the understanding of economic subject matter. This book however seems to be a good foundation for a course in economics. The author has included only those topics which he has deemed to be essential for understanding life's problems. The subject matter is thus also written in language that the average high school student can understand. It is concise. Economic principles and laws are stated with as little technicality as possible.

The book contains a variety of activities. At the end of each chapter there is a vocabulary exercise; questions on the text; questions for discussion; topics for special reports; topics for debate; and suggestions for collateral reading and references. The collateral reading is divided into two sections. Section 1 mentions elementary texts which do not give new material but may give a new point of view. In Section 2 are given more advanced texts which may be used by

advanced students and teachers. The problems at the end of each chapter attempt to challenge the curiosity and ability of students. Students enjoy problems, a form of motivation that the good teacher can use to good advantage. The topics for special reports may provide for the individual interests and further research, while the questions for discussion will enable the student to check his progress, and aid in review.

This book is a good revision of a previously published text. New material has been placed in the text bringing it up to date, as C.I.O., sit-down strikes, consumer facts, etc. The pictures, charts, and graphs are of a very helpful nature. The physical appearance of the book is attractive. The paper is of a fine texture. The print is legible and the aim of each chapter is printed in bold face print. The work is coherent. The author has included a glossary of economic terms at the end of the book. The viewpoint of the text attempts to make students familiar with practical explanations of economic life.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

Pupil's Workbook of Directed Study: To accompany Changing Governments and Changing Cultures. By Harold Rugg and James E. Mendenhall. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1937. Pp. 91. Illustrated. 40 cents.

A new edition of a workbook to be used in connection with the volume in the Rugg Social Science Series that treats democracy and dictatorship.

Pupil's Workbook of Directed Study. To accompany The Conquest of America. By Harold Rugg and James E. Mendenhall. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1937. Pp. 64. Maps. 40 cents.

A new edition of a workbook to be used in connection with the volume in the Rugg Social Science Series that treats the economic and social history of American life.

A Teacher's Guide to Europe and Asia. By Pearl H. Middlebrook and B. M. Collins. New York: Silver Burdett and Company, 1937.

A guidebook for teachers who use the Barrows-Parker Geography Series.

A Syllabus for Ancient History. By M. I. Finkelstein. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1937. Pp. 81. Maps. 80 cents.

A syllabus that follows the general organization and chronology of *The Ancient World* by W. E. Caldwell, although it can be as readily used with any other textbook of ancient history.

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BOOK NOTES

All educators and others interested in visual education will welcome the publication, *Motion Pictures in Education*, by Edgar Dale, F. W. Dunn, C. F. Hoban, Jr., and Etta Schneider (New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1938. Pp. 470. \$2.50). The volume contains detailed summaries of important articles, theses, and books on the subject which have appeared in the field during the past decade. There is presented an all-round discussion of the subject, including the administration of visual aids, teaching with motion pictures and other aids, selecting instructional materials, film production in schools, research, and teacher preparation in visual education. The author and topic indexes are complete and helpful. This scholarly work is timely and fills a need in a very important field of education.

A. C. B.

Another volume of *Proceedings and Debates of the British Parliaments Respecting North America*, edited by Leo Francis Stock (Washington, D.C.: Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1937. Pp. xxv, 888. Cloth, \$5.25; Paper \$4.75) has been published. This fourth volume of the series begins with the accession of George II and closes with the outbreak of the war with Spain in 1739. More than half the work is devoted to the parliamentary processes lead-

ing up to the war. The plan and editorial policy of this volume are the same as in the earlier ones, and like its predecessors, it measures up to the highest demands of scholarship. The work is indispensable, as to work of reference, to students of colonial history.

A. C. B.

The 1938 revised edition of the *Political Handbook of the World* (Published by Harper and Brothers, New York, for the Council on Foreign Relations, New York, 1938. Pp. 210. \$2.50) has recently appeared. The volume has been prepared under the editorship of Walter H. Mallory. The *Handbook* has been published annually since 1928 and this last edition has been completely revised to January 1, 1938. During 1937 there were general elections in a score of countries and new cabinets in more than a score. Brazil adopted a new constitution following fascist lines. Italy resigned from the League of Nations. New cabinets were formed in Rumania and Egypt which excluded members having major representation in their Parliaments. The book is a convenient and reliable reference for all interested in world politics, especially in regard to changes in governments and in national movements all over the world.

John Smith and Pocahontas, by Henry S. Hartzog (St. Louis: D'Alroy and Hart, 1937. Pp. vi, 194.

Illustrated. \$1.75) is a compact narrative of a dramatic period in early American history. It presents, in interesting fashion, an account of the early years at Jamestown, including short biographies of John Smith and Pocahontas. The author discredits the skepticism about John Smith's story of his rescue by Pocahontas (pp. 100-107). He repeats the words of Arber and Bradley, the editors of the Edinburgh reprint of Smith's works, that "to deny the truth of the Pocahontas incident is to create more difficulties than are involved in its acceptance." Regardless of the author's viewpoint, the book is simply and vividly written, and should prove to be of value for collateral and recreational reading in the schools.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

America and the Far East. By Nathaniel Pepper. *Social Action* for January 15, 1938. Council for Social Action, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10 cents.

Mr. Pepper examines the Far Eastern problem in the light of the events of the last hundred years; Japan's purposes and prospects, and their significance for the rest of the world; the problem for America; the outlook. A chronological table and a reading list are appended.

War Losses to a Neutral. By Eugene Staley. League of Nations Association, 8 W. Fortieth Street, New York, N.Y. 25 cents.

An analysis of the economic cost to the United States of nine Far Eastern policies including various embargo policies, the "cash and carry" policy, the "trade at your own risk" policy, and several forms of economic sanctions.

The Response of Government to Agriculture. By Arthur P. Chew. United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. 15 cents.

An account of the history, the activities, and the accomplishments of the United States Department of Agriculture since its foundation in 1862.

Understanding Corporations. By Emanuel Stein. Service Bureau for Adult Education, Division of General Education, New York University, New York City. 50 cents.

An analysis for the lay reader of the economic functions of the corporation, the investment banker, and the securities markets. A list of suggested readings is appended. This pamphlet is No. 4 of the *Adult Study Outlines* which New York University is publishing under the general title, "Reading and Study for Pleasure and Profit."

Trends of International Trade. *Foreign Policy Reports*, February 1, 1938. Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 8 W. Fortieth Street, New York, 25 cents.

A study of international trade trends made under the supervision of Winthrop W. Case, associate editor of *The Annalist*. Covers the period from 1927 to 1937 inclusive. Charts of the volume of trade and of production are included.

Little Known Facts about the Amish and the Mennonites. By Ammon Monroe Aurand, Jr. Aurand's Book Store, 900 N. Third Street, Harrisburg, Pa. 25 cents.

A study of the social customs and habits of the Amish and Mennonites.

Happy Little Homesteaders of Hawaii. By Mabel P. Chilson. Published by the author, 1731 Kilanea Avenue, Hilo, Hawaii. 75 cents.

A story about children in Hawaii.

Five Years of Hitler. Edited by M. B. Schnapper. American Council on Public Affairs, 20 Vesey Street, New York, N.Y. 10 cents.

Articles on conditions in Germany under the nazi régime.

New Light for World Peace. By Samuel Ganger. DeVorss and Company, Los Angeles, Calif. 25 cents.

A discussion of international problems.

Shall Teachers Be Scholars? By Henry W. Holmes. Committee on Publications, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. 25 cents.

A study of educational problems and policies in American universities.

Introduction to American Trade Unionism. With supplement. By Elsie Glueck. The Affiliated Schools for Workers, 302 E. Thirty-fifth Street, New York, N.Y. 35 cents.

A new edition of a survey of trade unionism in the United States.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Hidden Lincoln. From the Letters and Papers of William H. Herndon. Edited by Emanuel Hertz. New York: The Viking Press, 1938. Pp. 461. Illustrated. \$5.00.

With a short Foreword by Nicholas Murray Butler.

Norwegian Settlement in the United States. By Carlton C. Qualey. Northfield, Minn.: Norwegian-American Historical Association, 1938. Pp. xi, 285. Illustrated. \$3.00.

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A social and economic study of the dispersion and settlement of the Norwegians in the United States.

Early American History, 1492-1789. By Jennings B. Sanders. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. xix, 705. Maps. \$5.00.

A political, social and economic survey of the civilization of seventeenth and eighteenth century America.

The Imperial Factor in South Africa. By C. W. de Kiewiet. Cambridge, England: At the University Press; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. 341. \$4.50.

A study in politics and economics.

State Administration. By Kirk H. Porter. New York: F. S. Croft and Company, 1938. Pp. xi, 450. \$3.50.

Activities in which the forty-eight states may be expected to engage in, with suggestions for organizing suitable agencies for their administration.

Social Living. By Paul H. Landis, and Judson T. Landis. New York: Ginn and Company, 1938. Pp. xxii, 672. Illustrated. \$1.80.

A textbook on the principles and problems of society, designed for courses in introductory sociology in secondary schools.



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The Development of the Social Studies in Secondary Education before 1861. By Agnew O. Roorbach. Privately printed: Mrs. Mildred Roorbach, 1815 Whitehall Street, Harrisburg, Pa., 1937. Pp. 300. Illustrated. \$1.75.

A presentation of the manner in which the social studies became an essential part of the program of American secondary education.

Problems and Values of Today. By Eugene Hilton. Boston, Mass.: Little, Brown and Company, 1938. Pp. xviii, 640. Illustrated \$1.60.

One of a series of students' guidebooks for the study of contemporary life.

America Yesterday. By Roy F. Nichols, William C. Bagley and Chester A. Beard, with drawings by George M. Richards. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. vi, 415, lvi. Illustrated. \$1.40.

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